

PERSONALITY, DECISION-MAKING, AND SEXUALLY AGGRESSIVE
BEHAVIOR AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

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Sexual assault is a pervasive problem on college campuses. Individual level variables such as narcissism and impulsivity have been shown to have a tenuous relationship with sexually aggressive behavior in college students. Unfortunately, research in this domain has often inconsistently and inadequately assessed these constructs. As such, examination of these personality traits in relation to sexual assault requires a more precise approach, as these multifaceted constructs may not wholly predict sexual assault when examined as a broad construct. The current study sought to rectify the aforementioned issue by utilizing a more nuanced approach to investigate overall utility of narcissism and impulsivity/decision-making in explaining sexual aggression among college students. Two hundred-fifteen college students completed self-report measures of narcissistic traits, impulsivity, and sexual behaviors, as well as three experimental decision-making tasks to gauge impulsivity and risk-taking.

The current study utilized Mplus software to develop models of latent variables of narcissism, impulsivity, and problematic attitudes toward women. Results partially supported hypotheses in that the overall model was significant for males; however, Narcissism, not Impulsivity, was a significant predictor of sexual aggression and rape proclivity. Correlation analyses revealed that pathological narcissism, not non-pathological narcissism, was correlated with some aspects of sexual aggression. Sexual narcissism demonstrated the strongest correlations. Among the female sample, the overall relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual aggression was significant, with

impulsivity variables explaining a majority of the variance. Maladaptive narcissism demonstrated the strongest correlations with sexual aggression outcomes, in contrast to findings within the male sample. Overall, these results highlight the importance of nuanced assessment of personality constructs in providing a refined picture of predictors relevant to sexual aggression.

KEY WORDS: Narcissism, Risk taking, Impulsivity, Sexual aggression, Sexual assault, Female perpetration

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Sexual assault is frequently excused and rationalized within the United States, which serves to maintain attitudes toward, and perpetration of, such offenses. Often referred to as a “Rape Culture,” alarming rates of sexual assault are observed across the country (Estrich, 1987). One in 6 American women report experiencing an attempted or completed sexual assault in their lifetime; however, rape estimates suggest as many as 25% of women experience a sexual assault, many of which may go unreported due to stigma and other adverse consequences associated with reporting (Center for Disease Control, 2012). Further, approximately 15% of males endorse engaging in sexual behaviors that qualify as “rape” or “attempted rape;” a number that is likely underestimating the true prevalence due to stigma and fear of legal repercussions (White & Smith, 2004).

College students in particular may be at an elevated risk of sexual violence compared with the general population. Specifically, college-aged females are approximately three times more likely to experience sexual assault than women in other age ranges (Sinozich & Langton, 2014; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Importantly, sexual assault is not unique to females. Indeed, one in 33 men experience an attempted or completed sexual assault, with college men being approximately five times more likely to experience such events than other males (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Moreover, students are less likely to report incidents of rape to authorities than are non-students, with only 20% of females reporting sexual assault (Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network, 2017; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Reasons for a lack of reporting to

universities among college students mirror reasons that survivors within the general public cite for not reporting to police (e.g., not wanting to get the perpetrator in trouble). However, college students' reasons also appear to reflect an amplification of the normalization of sexual violence and a fear of not being believed. That is, reasons cited for not reporting occurrences of sexual violence to universities may reflect the potential consequence of college serving as a microcosm of rape culture in which survivor's experiences are minimized and perpetrator punishments are often nil (Spencer, Mallory, Toews, Stith, & Wood, 2017).

Regarding sequelae of sexual assault, survivors experience an increased likelihood for depressive and trauma symptoms and are 10 times more likely to use illicit drugs (Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network, 2017). In addition, many survivors may see difficulties manifest across interpersonal and school/business settings (e.g., increased arguments with loved ones, bosses, etc.), which can undoubtedly have detrimental impacts on social and financial sources of support (Department of Justice, 2014). Although literature focusing on convicted sex offenders often cites low recidivism rates (e.g., 15%), there is some research suggesting college students may evidence repeated perpetration of sexually coercive acts, highlighting the importance of investigation into precipitants of sexual aggression on college campuses (Lisak & Miller, 2002; Zinzow & Thompson, 2015). Given the pervasiveness of the problem and severity of the psychological and emotional impact experienced by survivors, research pertaining to factors influencing sexual assault is not only warranted but necessary for early intervention efforts.

Unsurprisingly, the vast majority of sexual assault research focuses on male sexual assault perpetration against females. Indeed, females have largely been dismissed and/or minimized as potential perpetrators of sexual violence, perhaps largely due to the public skepticism stemming from traditional, stereotypical views of both men (“Men cannot be victims”) and women (“Women would not do that;” Gannon & Cortoni, 2010). It is possible that sexual assaults perpetrated by females may be less likely to be reported due to the way the encounter is perceived. That is, sexual assault by a female does not necessarily fit the typical script of a rape scenario (e.g., a male stranger attacking and forcefully having sex with a woman). This incompatibility may obscure the survivor’s and others’ view of the encounter as a sexually aggressive experience. Overall, it is difficult to know how prevalent female sexual aggression is given the wide range of statistics pertaining to female perpetration of sexual aggression on college campuses. Estimates within research suggest a range from 1% (Forke, Myers, Catalozzi, & Schwarz, 2008) to 16% (Struckman-Johnson, 1991) of males experience pressured or forced sexual intercourse. Even more alarming, multiple studies have found 24% to 26% of women endorse using sexually coercive tactics against someone of the opposite sex, with great variability among methods of coercion (Schatzel-Murphy, Harris, Knight, & Milburn, 2009; Struckman-Johnson, Struckman-Johnson, & Anderson, 2003). This wide range in statistics may partially be attributed to the varying definitions of sexual violence and types of aggression measured in research.

Although phrases such as “sexual assault,” “sexual aggression,” and “sexual coercion” are at times undifferentiated within the literature, subtle differences exist and aid in understanding differing conclusions drawn in research. According to the Rape,

Abuse, and Incest National Network (RAINN, 2018) “Sexual violence” is an umbrella term that encompasses many different concepts including “rape,” “sexual abuse,” and “sexual aggression.” “Sexual assault” typically refers to the overt, forceful sexual contact that may or may not include explicit rape and is often used interchangeably with “sexual aggression.” The term “rape” is commonly used in a legal context and pertains to penetration without consent, although definitions vary by state. Finally, “sexual coercion” refers to more subtle, covert behaviors such as verbal persuasion or the use of alcohol to make someone more amenable to intercourse.

Although males are often viewed as more likely to employ sexually aggressive tactics, there is evidence to suggest rates do not differ as drastically as originally thought (Schatzel-Murphy, Harris, Knight, & Milburn, 2009; Struckman-Johnson, Struckman-Johnson, & Anderson, 2003). In examining gender differences in methods of sexual aggression, some studies suggest that women tend to report perpetrating higher rates of verbal coercion, rather than physical coercion (Russell & Oswald, 2001). Interestingly, men and women tend to report similar rates of taking advantage of, or influencing, a partner’s intoxication in order to obtain sexual intercourse (Banyard, et al., 2007). In general, more research is needed to understand the subtle sexually coercive behaviors in which women reportedly engage and how sexual aggression may present differently depending on the gender of the perpetrator. Beginning with a brief overview of theories of sexual aggression, the current paper will integrate individual level differences (i.e., attitudinal, personality, and decision-making tendencies) with the aim of clarifying the formative roles of these factors in shaping sexually aggressive behavior and subsequent, more recent theories of female perpetration.

Theories of Sexual Assault Perpetration

As a majority of perpetrators of sexual aggression are male, theoretical models have unsurprisingly been developed primarily to explain male perpetration. Because of the dearth of research, the development and application of theories of female sexual aggression is lacking (Bouffard, Bouffard, & Miller, 2016). Instead, researchers have relied upon empirically identified correlates of male-perpetrated sexual aggression to inform theories for women. Of course, blindly applying male-based theories of sexual aggression to female perpetrators has obvious drawbacks. Although there is overlap regarding individual-level factors relevant to sexual aggression that will be highlighted in this paper, applying male-driven theories to female-based perpetration may overlook female-specific factors, which may be useful in attempting to shape intervention efforts. Conversely, some theorists argue that using predictors of male sexual aggression to inform investigation into factors of female sexual aggression allows a thorough view of the significance of such factors as well as the different ways in which they manifest in different sexes (Krahe, Waizenhofer, & Moller, 2003). As such, the two theoretical backgrounds will be discussed separately.

Theories of male sexual aggression. In regard to underlying mechanisms of male perpetration of sexual violence, radical feminist theory postulates that men's desire to maintain control and power over the other sex is central to both sexual and nonsexual aggression toward women (Brownmiller, 1975). Feminist theory explains this desire stems directly from, and exerts influence on, a patriarchal society in which men engage in behaviors in order to maintain an existent overarching power over women (Brownmiller, 1975). As such, radical feminist theories view rape solely as an act of aggression and

power rather than an act pertaining to sexual gratification. Critics of this approach acknowledge the role of a patriarchal society in sexual assault, but highlight the complexity of rape and need for consideration of a multifactor framework. Feminist Framework Plus (FFP) theory (McPhail, 2016) was developed using a theory-knitting approach in which radical feminist theory provided a basis into which other empirically supported feminist theories were interwoven. The resulting framework consists of five major concepts: (1) Rape is a sexual act; (2) it occurs due to multiple motives (rather than a single motive); (3) it exists in a larger, patriarchal society but is also a deeply personal act; (4) it results from a categorical interaction of victim and perpetrator characteristics; (5) and it can impose serious harm upon the survivor (McPhail, 2016). Importantly, the FFP broadens the narrow focus of feminist theories in their emphasis of social factors by adding individual level characteristics, such as psychological (e.g., low self-esteem), biological (e.g., genetic factors), and developmental factors (e.g., attachment) to the model.

In additional effort to move beyond the perceived limitations of the radical feminist approach, some theorists expanded upon more individual level characteristics that are thought to stem from the larger patriarchal society and serve as antecedents to sexual assault. The confluence model, for instance, explains sexually aggressive behaviors as rooted in a combination of hostile-masculinity personality characteristics and an impersonal sexual orientation (Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991; Malamuth & Thornhill, 1994). Hostile-masculinity is described as a desire to dominate women stemming from an insecure and distrustful view of women and relationships, and the desire to be in control. Men high in hostile masculinity may fear rejection from

women and feel threatened by a woman's sexuality, resulting in defensiveness. These men may sexually aggress in attempt to assume control and eliminate any perceived "power" that women have (Malamuth, Linz, Heavey, Barnes, & Acker, 1995). Support for this approach resides in numerous studies, which have related hostile views of women, traditional gender roles, patriarchal views, and acceptance of violence towards women with sexual assault perpetration (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Malamuth, et al., 1991). The second contributing factor in the confluence model, an impersonal sexual orientation, typically refers to a willingness to engage in impersonal sex and a desire for numerous sex partners. This casual approach to sex often occurs without emotional attachment and fulfills a desire for immediate gratification (Malamuth, 1998). Hostile masculinity and an impersonal sexual orientation, both independently and in conjunction with each other have been shown to be significantly correlated with sexual assault and reoffending among college students (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Malamuth et al., 1995). Despite subtle differences with feminist theory, overlap can clearly be seen in that both theorize that the need to preserve unequal/hierarchical social statuses is largely rooted in gender roles and ultimately influences the development of hostile attitudes toward, and devaluation of, women.

Theories of female sexual aggression. As noted above, theories of female perpetration of sexual aggression are notably lacking. Some researchers have developed theories of female perpetration through empirical investigation into theories of male sexual assault. For instance, Schatzel-Murphy, Harris, Knight, and Milburn (2009) investigated four identified predictors related to male perpetration (prior sexual abuse, sexual dominance, sociosexuality, and sexual compulsivity), highlighted in the

confluence model proposed by Malamuth et al., (2006), in attempt to formulate a model of female perpetration. Schatzel-Murphy (2011) subsequently proposed a theoretical model of female perpetration comparable to that of male perpetration but with some distinct differences. Schatzel-Murphy offers that similar to the confluence model, two developmental paths may be observed for female sexual offending. The first path, sociosexuality (i.e., an impersonal approach to sex) overlaps with that of male sexual offending. However, the second path reflects sexual compulsivity and emotion regulation difficulties, rather than hostile masculinity. Schatzel-Murphy theorizes that women sexually aggress in the context of a lack of control, and perhaps, in an effort to *regain* that control.

Similarly, Gannon, et al., (2008) developed the Descriptive Model of Female Sexual Offending (DMFSO) using qualitative analyses of text from female sexual offenders to identify behavioral, cognitive, affective, and contextual factors associated with female sexual abuse. The results highlight three distinct pathways of female sexual offending: Explicit-Approach, Directed-Avoidance, and Implicit-Disorganized pathways. Although the Directed-Avoidance pathway applies to women who are directed to sexually offend against children, and thus, is irrelevant to this current population, the other two pathways bear some utility in understanding female sexual aggression against males in the context of the current literature on individual-level variables. Specifically, the Explicit-Approach pathway encompasses a heterogeneous group of women that hold varied goals for pre-planned offending, including sexual gratification and revenge, and may align more with the theoretical view of male sexual offenders. The Implicit-Disorganized pathway reflects similarities to Schatzel-Murphy's (2011) proposed

theoretical model. Specifically, this pathway reflects offending that lacks explicit planning and instead is characterized by self-regulation deficits (i.e., impulsive offending.)

Importantly, these models of female sexual offending often utilize previously established correlates of male sexual assault as a starting point from which their applicability to women can be deduced through empirical research. Although there is overlap in these factors, there are also distinct differences in the ways in which these manifest for female versus male offenders. Consequently, research pertaining to each of these individual variables will be discussed separately throughout this paper.

Attitudinal Factors: Rape Myth Acceptance

Theorized to stem largely from a patriarchal society (Burt, 1980; Malamuth, 1981; McPhail, 2016), research has begun to break down specific characteristics that relate to rape culture in a bidirectional way. Influenced by these theories, empirical investigation into the perpetuation of a rape culture has focused on a variety of attitudinal, situational, and personality factors that converge to fuel sexual assault.

Attitudinal correlates of rape, particularly Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA), are hypothesized to be influenced by traditional and stereotypical views of gender roles and have routinely been identified at an increasing prevalence in patriarchal societies. RMA typically refers to an individual's acceptance of beliefs that support and maintain sexually aggressive behavior by either blaming the victim (e.g., she deserved it) or excusing the perpetrator (e.g., he was drunk; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). These beliefs are viewed as an extreme extension of traditional gender roles, and both trivialize and justify sexual aggression resulting in minimization of sexual offenses by the perpetrator and the general

public (Bohner, Siebler, & Schmelcher, 2006). RMA has routinely been associated with problematic outcomes such as acceptance of sexually coercive behaviors, decisions to report rape, and judgments of victim blame (Burt, 1980; Cohn, Dupuis, & Brown, 2009). In conjunction with feminist theory, RMA is empirically associated with traditional masculine ideologies and negative attitudes toward women. That is, those who endorse higher RMA tend to endorse attitudes supporting traditional gender roles and may view women as subservient or submissive to men (Emmers-Sommer, 2014; Lutz-Zois, Moler, & Brown, 2015). This finding explains, in part, the tendency of those with high RMA to hold prejudicial views involving assigning higher levels of blame to victims in sexual offenses.

Importantly, RMA not only serves to perpetuate rape culture on a broader scale, but has also been identified as a correlate of rape proclivity (RP) and sexually aggressive behavior on an individual level (Bohner, Jarvis, Eyssell, & Siebler, 2005). Referred to as a “psychological neutralizer,” Burt (1980) first posited that RMA allows perpetrators to ignore or overlook social norms when sexually aggressing. Indeed, men with higher RMA report increased likelihood to engage in rape in hypothetical scenarios in which there was a guarantee of no legal repercussions (Malamuth, 1981). Interestingly, one’s rape proclivity is influenced by the salience of one’s own and others’ rape myth acceptance. For example, Bohner et al., (2005) demonstrated that there is a stronger link between individual level RMA and rape proclivity when one’s own RMA is brought into awareness.

RMA exists broadly across the population of the United States, with men routinely found to be more likely to adhere to these myths than women. Indeed, a meta-

analysis of 37 peer-reviewed studies of RMA found an effect size of .58, ($ES = 0.07$, $p < .001$) for gender differences (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Discrepancies for these gender differences have commonly been attributed to endorsement of traditional gender scripts, as discussed above, and in-group biases. That is, men may identify more with perpetrators because they 1) are more likely to endorse traditional gender scripts and 2) see male perpetrators as similar to themselves. Conversely, women may be more likely to empathize with survivors, thus rejecting rape myths associated with assaults. Despite this frequent found gender difference, there are certain contexts associated with an increase in RMA among females. For instance, Fox, Ralston, Cooper, and Jones (2015) demonstrated that women who were exposed to sexualized depictions of females endorsed increased self-objectification and RMA. Additionally, hyperfemininity, described as an exaggerated and rigid adherence to stereotypically female gender roles, has been associated with increased RMA (Murnen & Byrne, 1991). The authors posit that this extreme view of gender roles may lead women to believe they are defined by their sexuality and more specifically, their relationship with men. Indeed, Schatzel-Murphy (2011) observed that overlap with sexual coercion can be seen in that these women:

...play out sexual scripts that emphasize their value as sexual objects to men and drive them to establish intimate, and thus sexual, relationships in manipulative, power-infused ways – all the while, feeding into and perpetuating a patriarchal system's establishment of rigid gender roles, superiority of men, and ultimately, conflict and violence between the sexes (p. 19)

Another explanation as to why women may endorse rape myths is relevant to attribution theory. Specifically, it is possible women may engage in victim-blaming in a defensive attempt to perceive themselves as separate and different than the victim (Grubb & Turner, 2012). That is, it serves as a protective mechanism in that the more one can differentiate oneself from a female who was sexually assaulted, the safer they may feel. Given that RMA has clear links with traditional gender roles and ideologies, research has further investigated characteristics influenced by, and reinforcing of, patriarchal societies. Specifically, personality characteristics relevant to entitlement derived from patriarchal societies have been an intuitive route of investigation.

Narcissism and Entitlement

Narcissistic reactance theory of sexual assault perpetration suggests entitlement is a primary influential factor in sexual aggression (Baumeister, Catanese, & Wallace, 2002). The theory posits that within a patriarchal society, males may derive a sense of entitlement that stems from privilege and power that has been conferred onto them. In contrast to radical feminist theories that ascertain that sex is not a critical motivator in sexual violence, narcissistic reactance theory hypothesizes that out of a combination of low empathy and high views of oneself, males may feel due, or owed, sexual intercourse from females. Further, this entitlement regarding sexual intercourse serves as a cognitive distortion that aids in minimization of any aggressive behaviors. Bushman, Bonacci, van Dijk, and Baumeister (2003) tested this theory in a series of three related studies. The first study demonstrated that males high in narcissistic traits endorsed higher levels of rape supportive attitudes and the belief that female victims shared some responsibility for rape. Results from the second study revealed that narcissistic men found depictions of

rape less aversive than other men and rated the scenarios as more enjoyable and arousing. The third study tapped into the reactance portion of the theory by having men experience rejection from a female confederate. Narcissistic men appeared to react more negatively to the perceived rejection by becoming more punitive toward the female (e.g., they recommended lower levels of pay than other men).

Although it appears to be in contrast to more radical theories of sexual assault, Baumeister and colleagues' (2002) theory generally compliments, rather than contradicts, the confluence model of sexual assault and expands upon potential identifiable factors that influence sexually coercive behavior. Theoretically, the link between entitlement and sexual aggression is not unexpected. It is logical that individuals believing they are more deserving than others may also believe they are owed and deserve the sexual submission of others. This has been supported by limited personality research, which has established a complex relationship between the construct of narcissism and sexual aggression. In general, college men who score high on narcissism and related traits (e.g., entitlement) often report increased sexually aggressive behavior (Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016). This finding has been found in incarcerated samples, in which narcissism, as assessed in a broad sense, has been associated with general aggression and sexual aggression (Salekin, Rogers, & Sewell, 1996). Conversely, there has been some research casting doubt on this relationship, where global measures of narcissism have been unable to differentiate incarcerated sexual offenders from non-sexual offenders (Pospiszyl, 2002).

Complicating the picture is that narcissism itself is a multidimensional construct often described and measured inconsistently across disciplines (i.e., clinical psychology,

social psychology, etc.). This variability leads to difficulty synthesizing data from empirical studies with the ways in which narcissism manifests in a real-world setting. The area of sexual assault research is no exception to these limitations and assessment of narcissistic traits at a more specific level is required in order to gauge their influence more accurately. Though early research emphasized a categorical expression of narcissism and other personality traits (i.e., present or absent), more recent trends in the field suggest a dimensional approach to personality assessment is more accurate. To this end, narcissism may be viewed and measured along two dimensions: pathological/nonpathological and grandiose/vulnerable (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). At present there is no consensus on the organization of these dimensions, with some evidence suggesting a single continuum (Paulhus, 1998) and others suggesting two separate continuums (Pincus, et al., 2009). Additional models include a hierarchical organization with the grandiose and vulnerable dimensions falling along the pathological dimension (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). Although a complete discussion of the disparate models of narcissism is beyond the scope of this paper, an understanding of empirical correlates of the dimensions is required at minimum in order to further address the nuanced relationship of narcissism with sexual assault.

Nonpathological narcissism refers to a relatively healthy yet exaggerated positive self-image, hostility, and an emphasis on one's own self-worth. This elevated self-esteem may be viewed as adaptive in certain situations, such as being emotionally resilient, and is associated with positive psychological well-being (Miller & Campbell, 2008; Sedikides, Rudich, Gregg, Kumashiro, & Rusbult, 2004.) Nonpathological narcissism is typically assessed via the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin &

Terry, 1988), a measure commonly used to assess narcissism within the field of social psychology (Miller & Campbell, 2008). In contrast, *pathological* narcissism typically refers to an exaggerated sense of self-importance and uniqueness, a strong or overwhelming need for admiration, an irrational sense of entitlement, a willingness to exploit others, low empathy, and arrogance. In general, pathological narcissism is associated with higher levels of impairment and distress and is most closely associated with Narcissistic Personality Disorder (NPD; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). Although individuals who exhibit nonpathological narcissism tend to express an elevated yet adaptive self-esteem, individuals who endorse higher levels of pathological narcissism typically report an overt, yet unstable, high self-esteem that may be coupled with an implicit, possibly unconscious low self-esteem (Rhodewalt, Madrian, & Cheney, 1998). Importantly, this leaves individuals susceptible to criticism from others and may sensitize these individuals to perceived threats.

Regarding the grandiose and vulnerable dimension of narcissism, self-esteem appears to be a distinguishing factor. Mainly, individuals with high *grandiose* narcissism report high self-esteem, whereas individuals high on *vulnerable* narcissism tend to report low self-esteem (Miller et al., 2011). In a broad sense, grandiose narcissism is typically inversely associated with emotions such as depression, neuroticism, and shame proneness (Rose, 2002) and may represent an insensitivity or indifference toward threat. Vulnerable narcissism, on the other hand, typically encompasses emotions such as anxiety and shame proneness with latent feelings of superiority, and may lead individuals to be overly sensitive to threats to their self-image.

Limited research has examined this multifaceted approach to narcissism in relation to sexual assault. In a sample of college men, Mouilso and Calhoun (2016) found that vulnerable narcissism was correlated with sexual assault perpetration when the perpetrator used drugs or alcohol in the course of the perpetration. Additionally, maladaptive personality traits assessed via the NPI were associated with sexual assault perpetration, whereas non-maladaptive traits were not associated with sexual assault perpetration, suggesting that pathological narcissism may distinguish perpetrators from non-perpetrators. This research highlights the importance and need to examine narcissism as a multidimensional construct via its specific components, rather than as a general personality trait.

In conjunction with this line of reasoning, Widman and McNulty (2010) point out an additional consideration in understanding the role of narcissism in sexual aggression. Specifically, the authors posit that measures of pathological and nonpathological narcissism are both insensitive to gauging whether narcissistic traits are activated in sexual situations and thus, are incapable of distinguishing between narcissists who are likely to engage in sexual aggression from narcissists who are not. As such, they developed the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) in an attempt to account for the variance in sexual aggression that is missed by global narcissistic measures. Indeed, the scale, which gauges narcissism specific to sexual situations, was a more robust predictor of sexual aggression frequency and propensity than narcissistic traits gauged with the NPI. Relatedly, the construct of “sexual entitlement” has been found to be a significant predictor of sexual aggression and demonstrates utility in differentiating sexually aggressive men from non-sexually aggressive men (Bouffard, 2010). Ultimately, these

findings highlight the multidimensionality and variations in which narcissism may manifest in regard to sexual experiences.

Given the theoretical underpinnings of narcissistic entitlement and increased rates of narcissism among men (Paulhus & Williams, 2002), a majority of research related to narcissism and sexual offending has focused specifically on male populations. Females have typically been included in studies of narcissism and aggression in the context of intimate partner violence (Blinkhorn, Lyons, & Almond, 2015). Blinkhorn and colleagues (2015) expanded the narcissistic reactance theory tenants to a female population by examining scores on the NPI facets in relation to endorsement of different types of sexually coercive behaviors. Consistent with prior research, males endorsed significantly higher narcissistic traits than females. Interestingly, the authors observed maladaptive narcissism (assessed via the Entitlement/Exploitativeness subscale of the NPI) was the strongest predictor of all forms of sexual aggression in females; whereas the male sample demonstrated more specific patterns between NPI subscales and coercion types (e.g., the Leadership/Authority subscale predicted sexual coercion in the form of Emotional Manipulation and Exploitation of the Intoxicated). The authors suggest these findings reflect subtle differences between males (who tend to endorse more overt/grandiose narcissism) and females (whose narcissism is perhaps expressed more discretely, involving manipulative traits). Further examination of sex differences revealed no significant differences between males and females in regard to the Entitlement/Exploitativeness subscale and all forms of sexual coercion, suggesting the overall relationship between maladaptive traits of narcissism and sexual coercion was similar between the two genders. Further, these findings are utilized in support and

expansion of the narcissistic reactance theory of rape and sexual coercion (Baumeister et al., 2002), in that narcissistic females endorsed similar levels of coercion in the context of perceived rejection from a sexual advance.

Although indirectly associated, Hines and Saudino (2008) observed higher levels of conscientiousness as predictive of sexually coercive behaviors among females. The authors suggest this may be explained by a need for control and power (which may be comparable to the overt narcissism observed in male samples). That is, perhaps because of the inherent disparities in the social structure of the culture, women may overcompensate and attempt to establish power and control over men. This attempt to obtain power and regain status may include reclaiming of one's own sexuality but also may manifest in maladaptive ways such as sexual coercion. Indeed, theories of female sexual aggression that are built upon research on entitlement and narcissism hypothesize that, similar to men, women's engagement in sexual aggression may represent an expression of power and control (Christopher, 2001). In the same vein as Hines and Saudino, this can be extended to comment on the changing structure of society and one could surmise that perhaps out of the changing gender roles comes a newfound sense of entitlement to have one's sexual needs met. For some, this may result in increased sexual freedom; however, for other women, this may result in an extreme manifestation in which they utilize sexually aggressive techniques to fulfill that desire.

Impulsivity

As with narcissism, impulsivity has been both theoretically and empirically linked with aggressive behaviors, with individuals high in impulsivity demonstrating higher levels of general aggression (Bettencourt, Talley, Benjamin, & Valentine, 2006)

and sexual assault perpetration (Mouilso, Calhoun, & Rosenbloom, 2013; Spence, Losoff, & Robbins, 1991). Existent research emphasizes the importance of impulsivity in distinguishing differences in perpetration behaviors; for instance, distinguishing between those who use forceful sexual coercion frequently versus those who do so infrequently (Petty & Dawson, 1989) and those who report severe perpetration versus those who do not (Hersh & Gray-little, 1998). However, impulsivity is also a multidimensional construct that is often (questionably) assessed in a broad fashion, and thus, the heterogeneity of the construct is generally left unexplored (Whiteside & Lynam, 2001).

Upon further examination, impulsivity can be broken down into four component parts: Urgency (impulsive behavior with intense emotion), Lack of Premeditation (acting without considering consequences), Lack of Perseverance (difficulty maintaining attention during tasks), and Sensation Seeking (openness and pursuit of new, exciting, and potentially dangerous situations) (Whiteside & Lynam, 2001). Urgency was later divided into Positive and Negative Urgency, reflecting impulsivity specifically stemming from positive or negative emotions (Lynam, Smith, Whiteside, & Cyders, 2006). Mouilso, Calhoun, and Rosenbloom (2013) applied this model of impulsivity to sexual assault in order to understand different pathways to sexually aggressive behavior and observed distinct differences for perpetrators and non-perpetrators. In particular, Urgency and Lack of Premeditation both predicted sexually coercive behaviors among college men.

These results can be understood within the context of theories of sexual aggression. Specifically, Urgency reflects affect regulation deficits that may lead individuals high on this facet to perpetrate higher levels of sexual and nonsexual offenses.

In particular, Mouilso and colleagues suggest that perceived provocation (i.e., feeling led on due to misperceived interest) may lead men higher on Negative Urgency to impulsively aggress due to the adverse, intense emotions experienced upon perceived rejection. Overlap with narcissism can also be seen within this relationship; that is, perceived rejection may be interpreted as an image threat, leading men who are also high on vulnerable narcissism to be more likely to sexually aggress in that given situation. Additionally, men high on Positive Urgency may engage in sexually coercive behaviors after beginning with consensual sexual encounters that elicit strong, positive emotions. Building off of those emotions, these men may demonstrate difficulty regulating this affect and curbing their desire, thus resulting in sexually coercive behavior.

Mouilso and colleagues also found that lack of premeditation distinguished perpetrators from non-perpetrators. This relationship has been demonstrated in varying capacities in previous research and fits within theoretical frameworks of sexual assault. That is, men who demonstrate difficulty deliberating, planning, and thinking through courses of action are at higher risk for engaging in sexual aggression (Mouilso, et al., 2013). Coupled with an underlying sense of entitlement, men may engage in sexually coercive behaviors that they deem appropriate at the time, but later are able to evaluate more thoroughly as inappropriate. This is further supported by research indicating that many men who have engaged in sexually aggressive acts report feeling shame and remorse for their actions after reflecting on them (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004). Lack of Premeditation may be particularly important in distinguishing perpetrators who perhaps don't intend for their actions to progress to sexual coercion from others who may plan ahead in order to sexually aggress (Mouilso, et al., 2013).

Impulsivity has been one factor commonly identified in theoretical models of female sexual aggression (Gannon et al., 2008; Schatzel-Murphy, et al., 2009; Schatzel-Murphy, 2011). Empirical support for emotion regulation difficulties as a predictor of sexual aggression can be found in a number of studies that have applied and assessed the construct in varied ways. Specifically, some research has demonstrated a relationship between low self-control, risk-seeking behaviors, and sexually coercive experiences (Bouffard, Bouffard, & Miller, 2016). Others have highlighted sexual compulsivity, (i.e., impulsivity specific to sexual situations/ difficulty controlling sexual urges) as a primary influential factor in female sexual aggression (Schatzel-Murphy, 2011). Further, indirect support for this relationship rests in observations of higher levels of extraversion among women who endorse sexually aggressive behaviors (Hines & Saudino, 2008). The authors posit that increased extraversion may correlate with increased likelihood of attending parties and consuming alcohol. Women who engage in heavy alcohol consumption may be more disinhibited and thus, more likely to impulsively engage in sexually coercive behaviors. Additionally, although not a direct measure of impulsivity, increased rates of personality disorders characterized by impulsivity (e.g., Borderline Personality Disorder) have been observed among female sexual offenders (Green & Kaplan, 1994; Travin, et al., 1990). In general, these studies provide promising results in understanding female sexual aggression; however, further investigation into the role of impulsivity in female sexual aggression is warranted, particularly to understand potential differences with male sexual aggression and to gauge the construct in a heterogeneous way.

The Relationship between Narcissism and Impulsivity

The theoretical relationship between narcissistic traits and engagement in impulsive behavior has empirical support, although gauges of impulsive behavior may vary drastically. Decision-making processes relevant to executive functioning are often utilized as gauges of impulsivity given the role of the frontal lobe in planning and inhibitory control (Hawkins & Trobst, 2000; Leshem & Glicksohn, 2007). Deficits in inhibitory control observed in damage to the prefrontal cortex result in a decreased ability to plan and a failure to anticipate consequences and adapt ones' behavior in response to external cues (Kandel & freed, 1989). Thus, engagement in risky and/or aggressive behaviors may be more likely because these individuals with damage or deficits in decision-making processes lack the benefit of inhibitory control when presented with emotionally salient situations (i.e., they may respond based on emotional cues because they lack the ability to override a primitive reaction) (Grafman, Schwab, Warden, Prigden, Brown, & Salazar, 1996).

Indeed, low self-control has been empirically shown to strongly predict engagement in risk-taking behaviors and is hypothesized to influence decision-making in that individuals with low self-control are less inclined to think critically about their choices prior to engaging in risky behaviors (Chapple, 2005; Franklin, Bouffard, & Pratt, 2012). In general, narcissistic traits have been linked to self-reported impulsivity as well as risk-taking behaviors that are characterized by impulsivity (e.g., gambling, dangerous driving, etc). More specifically, higher grandiose narcissism and exploitiveness has been shown to predict self-reported risky behaviors and high levels of impulsivity (Buelow & Brunell, 2014; Lakey, Rose, Campbell, & Goodie, 2008). These findings are logical in

that grandiose narcissists often prefer immediate rewards (i.e., urgency) and discount the longitudinal impact of their behaviors (i.e., lack of premeditation). Thus, risky behaviors such as gambling are appealing to those who are high in grandiose narcissism for the inherent potential immediate benefit of such behaviors.

Assessing impulsivity via decision-making tasks. Although gauging prior risk-taking engagement is conceptually relevant, self-report measures may over- or underestimate actual involvement in risk-taking behaviors (Coxon, 1999). Impulsivity and risk-taking have also been assessed in different contexts via experimental decision-making to gauge a more accurate reflection of real-life decisions. Notably, performance on experimental tasks has been examined in the context of general aggression but is noticeably missing within the literature on sexual aggression. In assessing decision-making and risk-taking via experimental tasks, prior research has found a tenuous relationship between narcissism/entitlement and performance on measures of impulsive behavior, such as the Iowa Gambling Task (IGT) and the Balloon Analogue Risk Task (BART) (Brunell & Buelow, 2015).

Measures such as the IGT and BART are cognitive paradigms designed to assess risk-taking and impulsive behavior via manipulation of tasks. The IGT requires participants to choose one card from four decks. Two decks are advantageous to the player but with smaller rewards, whereas the other two decks are disadvantageous with larger rewards and a net loss (Bechara, 2007). The task generally assesses focus on immediate reward with insensitivity for future consequences (Xu, Korczykowski, Zhu, & Rao, 2013). Lakey, Rose, Campbell, and Goodie (2008) examined the utility of performance on the IGT as a mediator of narcissism (using the NPI) and gambling

problems among self-identified gamblers. Their significant results led the authors to ascertain that narcissists are overly confident and overly focused on reward, which biases them to over appraise risk and loss estimates and impede decision-making. These results need to be interpreted with caution, however, as there are some inherent flaws in conclusions of this research, as elucidated by Brunell and Buelow (2015). Brunell and Buelow point out that not only does the research only generalize to gamblers, rather than the general public, but the authors have an inherent confound in the way they utilized IGT performance as an outcome variable. That is, the IGT has been shown to reflect two different styles of decision-making; affective and deliberative decision-making (Wood & Bechara, 2014); also discussed as decision-making under ambiguity and under risk. Thus, two separate scores are possible to reflect the two different processes. Lakey et al. unfortunately used a total combined score across all trials, rather than separating the two scores out, limiting our understanding of these two processes.

The BART is another experimental cognitive paradigm that requires participants to press a button to inflate a balloon on a computer screen, with increased size of the balloons equating to larger rewards but also larger probability of exploding (which would negate the reward). The BART assesses propensity toward risk-taking behavior by rewarding risk-taking behavior until a given time at which point continued risk-taking is detrimental (Lejuez et al., 2002). Investigation into the utility of performance on the BART in regards to narcissism is mixed. For example, Crysel, Crosier, and Webster (2013) discovered no relationship between grandiose narcissism and performance on the BART; however, their outcome variable was vague leaving the true nature of their findings unclear (Brunell & Buelow, 2015). That is, it is unclear as to how the authors

utilized BART trials where the balloons popped in their dependent variable leading to uncertainty as to the actual dependent variable used.

It is important to note that much of the research on narcissism and decision-making has focused on grandiose narcissism only, typically assessed via the NPI. Findings regarding grandiose narcissism inform the literature in that increased grandiose narcissism is typically associated with increased self-reported risk-taking behaviors and preference for smaller, immediate rewards over larger, delayed rewards (Buelow & Brunell, 2014). However, reliance on total scores to assess narcissism likely misses important information pertaining to specific facets that may affect risk-taking (Buelow & Brunell, 2014). In an effort to address this and the previously mentioned concerns, Brunell and Buelow (2015) examined the relation between narcissism (assessing pathological and nonpathological narcissism via a variety of self-report scales) and performance on a variety of decision-making tasks, including the IGT, BART, and the Columbia Card Task (CCT). Their results were tenuous, at best. Grandiose narcissism, as assessed via the NPI, was a modest predictor of performance on the BART and an inconsistent and weak predictor of performance on the IGT. Entitlement, assessed via the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES), modestly predicted performance on the IGT; however, this was only found in the “under risk” trials. Additionally, pathological narcissism, as assessed via the Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI), demonstrated variable predictive ability in regards to the CCT. In general, the results highlight the importance of nuanced assessment of narcissism in relation to decision-making and demonstrate the need for further examination.

Decision-Making and Aggression

Relatedly, examining decision-making processes may be helpful in understanding aggressive behaviors. In regards to general aggression, increased risk taking on decision-making tasks has been associated with various measures of aggression including clinical diagnoses associated with aggressive behavior (e.g., Intermittent Explosive Disorder) and reported history of violent behavior (Best, Williams, Coccaro, 2002; Fishbein, et al., 2009). This relationship becomes clearer when examining aggression as comprising two distinct categories: proactive and reactive aggression. Proactive aggression refers to goal-directed behavior, whereas reactive aggression refers to aggression resulting from perceived threat. The significant positive relationship between increased risk-taking on decision-making tasks and aggression tends to be stronger for that of reactive aggression, although both types tend to show impairments compared to normal controls (Kuin, Masthoff, Kramer, & Scherder, 2015).

Importantly, it is unclear if this relationship extends to sexually aggressive behavior. Conceptually, sexual aggression can be viewed as having similar components to reactive aggression (e.g., sexually aggressing in response to perceived rejection which may threaten one's ego) and proactive aggression (e.g., deliberately sexually assaulting someone for one's own gain); however, sexual aggression is empirically distinct from general aggression. Thus, exploration of this relationship is needed. There is some evidence that among prison populations (who tend to show increased risk-taking behaviors overall), sex offenders may display an increase in risk-taking behaviors by overweighing potential gains when compared with other offenders (Yechiam, et al., 2008). Because research on decision-making with offender and/or inpatient populations

may reflect overarching antisocial tendencies, it is crucial to examine this pattern in non-offender populations. Presently, there is limited research among college populations concerning decision-making and aggression, with one study noting a positive association between risk taking on the IGT and aggression among college students (Bobadilla, Wampler, & Taylor, 2012).

CHAPTER II

The Current Study and Research Hypotheses

The Current Study

In general, there is a paucity of research investigating the overall relationship between narcissism, decision-making, and sexual aggression. Based on the tenuous relationship between narcissistic traits and decision-making, it stands to reason that this relationship needs further exploration, specifically in the context of sexual aggression. As such, the present study sought to provide a more nuanced approach to investigating the relationship between these three, multifaceted constructs. First, the current study replicates prior research on narcissism and sexual aggression. Relatedly, another aim of the study is to understand the specificity with which measures pertaining to narcissism are needed in order to more accurately predict rape proclivity and sexually aggressive experiences. The study also expands on the relationship between narcissism and sexual assault by gauging the additional predictive value of decision-making tasks (in addition to self-report measures of impulsivity). In regard to female perpetration, the current study expanded findings to a female population by identifying risk factors that have little investigation in the current literature. In total, this study contributes to the current literature by providing a further developed, more nuanced understanding of the factors influencing sexually aggressive behavior.

Hypothesis 1. Gender and Sexual Aggression Tactics

In regards to female perpetration, I hypothesize that females may report similar overall levels of sexually aggressive tactics. Given the variability and a lack of clarity in regards to reporting rates among males and females, this hypothesis was based on more

recent research suggesting less variability in sexual aggression rates (Schatzel-Murphy, Harris, Knight, & Milburn, 2009; Struckman-Johnson, Struckman-Johnson, & Anderson, 2003). I hypothesized that verbal coercion would be the most common tactic used among both genders based on research by Russell and Oswald (2001, 2002). Exploitation tactics (i.e., via incapacitation using drugs or alcohol) would be the second most common tactic (Banyard, et al, 2007). Lastly, I hypothesize physical coercion would be the least common method of perpetration, with men endorsing greater rates of physical coercion than women (Hines, 2008).

Hypothesis 2a. Narcissism, Impulsivity, Attitudes toward Women and Sexual Aggression

The present study sought to replicate prior research on narcissism and sexual aggression. Based on studies such as Mouilso and Calhoun (2016) and Bouffard (2010), I hypothesized that narcissism (assessed as a latent construct) would predict both sexual aggression and rape proclivity, with individuals who endorse more narcissistic traits reporting more sexually aggressive experiences and higher rape proclivity. Relatedly, the study also sought to expand on the relationship between narcissism and sexual assault by gauging the additional predictive value of impulsivity, and specifically, decision-making tasks. In this regard, I expect impulsivity (as assessed by self-report and experimental tasks) would incrementally account for variance in sexual aggression and rape proclivity, beyond that of narcissism. Given its established relationship with sexual aggression and rape proclivity, I also expect that problematic attitudes towards sex (as assessed by Rape Myth Acceptance and Attitudes toward Women) would explain a majority of the variance

in the relationship between problematic attitudes toward women, narcissism, and impulsivity with sexual aggression and rape proclivity.

Hypothesis 2b.

Given the relatively little research on female sexual coercion, the overall relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual coercion in females was exploratory in nature. I hypothesized the relationship between the aforementioned variables to be stronger for males than females. Additionally, based on research and theory regarding low self-control (Gannon et al., 2008) and sexual compulsivity (Schatzel-Murphy, 2011), I hypothesized impulsivity would explain more variance than narcissism within the model for female perpetrators.

Hypothesis 3a. Nuanced Assessment of Narcissism

Another aim of the study was to understand the specificity with which measures pertaining to narcissism are needed in order to more accurately predict rape proclivity and sexually aggressive experiences. Based on prior research conducted by Mouilso and Calhoun (2016), I hypothesized that pathological narcissism, rather than nonpathological narcissism, would predict sexual aggression and rape proclivity. Grandiose, but not vulnerable narcissism, would be related to overt sexual aggression and rape proclivity. Vulnerable narcissism would be predictive of more subtle forms of sexual coercion, but is not expected to have strong associations with rape proclivity. Indeed, vulnerable narcissism has been demonstrated to be associated with more subtle forms of sexual coercion (e.g., exploitation via alcohol; Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016); however, the rape proclivity measure is more face valid and may be more indicative of overt sexual aggression. Further, sexual narcissism is expected to be associated with overall increased

sexual aggression outcomes, similar to those expected from the PNI rather than the NPI (Widman & McNulty, 2010).

Hypothesis 3b.

Given the findings of Blinkhorn, Lyons, and Almond, 2015, I expect that patterns will be observed between the Maladaptive NPI facet and sexual aggression within the female sample. Additionally, positive correlations are expected between vulnerable narcissism, but not grandiose and nonpathological narcissism. Given the lack of research on the relationship between pathological narcissism and sexual aggression among females, this latter hypothesis is based primarily on research stemming from male perpetration patterns and the overall conceptual link between vulnerability and maladaptive narcissism.

CHAPTER III

Method

Participants

Two hundred-seven participants were drawn from a sample of Sam Houston State University students using the PeRP program, an online system that allows students at Sam Houston State University to sign up for participation in various research projects. Participation is typically either required for course credit or deemed eligible for extra credit for various courses at Sam Houston State University. Participants were between the ages of 18 and 24, to ensure a representative sample of college students ($M = 19.63$, $SD = 2.28$). Nine cases were excluded due to failing a random responding check. Demographics for the sample are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Variable	Male Total (%)	Male Mean (SD)	Female Total (%)	Female Mean (SD)	Overall Total (%)	Overall Mean (SD)
Gender	77 (39.3)		119 (60.7)		196 (100)	
Age		19.91 (2.84)		19.45 (1.82)		19.63 (2.28)
Ethnicity/Race						
Caucasian	35 (45.5)		44 (37.0)		79 (40.3)	
African-American	13 (16.9)		32 (26.9)		45 (23.0)	

(continued)

Latino/a	21 (27.3)	27 (22.7)	48 (24.5)
Asian/Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander	2 (2.6)	8 (6.7)	10 (5.1)
American Indian/ Alaskan Native	2 (2.6)	1 (.8)	3 (1.5)
Biracial	3 (3.9)	5 (4.2)	8 (4.1)

Education

Freshman	27 (35.1)	56 (47.1)	83 (42.3)
Sophomore	27 (35.1)	23 (19.3)	50 (25.5)
Junior	9 (11.7)	16 (13.4)	25 (12.8)
Senior	10 (13.0)	19 (16.0)	29 (14.8)
Senior 5 th year or higher	4 (5.2)	5 (4.2)	9 (4.6)

**Relationship
Status**

Single	43 (55.8)	57 (47.9)	100 (51.0)
Dating (not exclusive)	2 (2.6)	13 (10.9)	15 (7.7)
Dating (Exclusive)	31 (40.3)	46 (38.7)	77 (39.3)
Engaged	1 (1.3)	2 (1.7)	3 (1.5)
Married	0	1 (.8)	1 (.5)

(continued)

Age at first consensual intercourse	17.00 (1.80)	16.61 (2.03)
Number of sexual partners	3.83 (4.41)	4.01 (4.56)

Procedure

Participants signed up for designated time slots via the Sam Houston State University research participation website. They met with a trained undergraduate and graduate research assistant (RA) in groups of up to five in a designated office in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences building on the SHSU campus. First, an RA fully reviewed the informed consent with the participant. Participants then were instructed to complete all self-report measures in paper format. While participants complete the self-report measures, they were individually escorted by the graduate research assistant to complete the following experimental tasks with the graduate RA in a separate office: Trail Making Test, Porteus Mazes, and the Iowa Gambling Task. All self-report and experimental measures were randomized. This study is part of a larger study and averaged approximately two and a half hours. Participants were awarded 3 credits as compensation for their participation in the current study.

Measures

Self-Report Measures.

Demographics. Participant demographic information is gathered via a researcher-generated demographics survey consisting of 8 items. This questionnaire garners information such as race, sex, identified gender, age, education, fraternity/sorority membership, sexual orientation, marital status, and number of sexual partners.

Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS; Widman & McNulty, 2010). The SNS is a 20 item self-report measure of narcissism in a sexual domain. The SNS was developed and validated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), resulting in a four-factor structure. These four subscales (five items each) are: Sexual Entitlement (belief that the fulfillment of one's sexual desires was a personal right), Low Sexual Empathy (general lack of empathy and devaluation of sexual partner), Sexual Exploitation (the ability and willingness to manipulate a person to gain sexual access), and Sexual Skill (tendency to hold a grandiose sense of sexual skill or an exaggerated sense of sexual success). Further analyses revealed positive correlations with sexual narcissism and narcissism in general (Widman & McNulty, 2010). Internal consistency in the present study was .79 for men and .80 for women.

Narcissistic Personality Inventory—40 (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988). The NPI assesses nonpathological narcissism and contains 40 items asking respondents to choose which of two statements describes them. Narcissistic responses are assigned scores of 1 and non-narcissistic responses are scored 0. The NPI's construct validity has been established in terms of the full scale NPI and its component scales (Raskin & Terry, 1988). In addition, there is evidence for separation of the measure into adaptive (i.e.,

Authority, Superiority, Self-Sufficiency, Exhibitionism, and Vanity subscales) and maladaptive (i.e., Exploitativeness and Entitlement subscales) components (Mouilso and Calhoun, 2016). Internal consistency for the total scale was .88 for men and .83 for women.

Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI; Pincus, Ansell, Pimental, Cain, Wright, & Levy, 2009). The PNI consists of 52 items answered on a 6-point scale ranging from (0) Not at All Like Me to (5) Very Much Like Me. The seven primary scales of the PNI are Exploitativeness, Grandiose Fantasy, Self-Sacrificing Self-Enhancement, Contingent Self-Esteem, Hiding the Self, Devaluing, and Entitlement Rage, load on two higher order domains of Narcissistic Grandiosity and Narcissistic Vulnerability (Wright et al., 2010). The PNI, and its Grandiosity and Vulnerability domains, has been shown to have good convergent and discriminant validity (Thomas, Wright, Lukowitsky, Donnellan, & Hopwood, 2012). The PNI demonstrated strong internal consistency for men ($\alpha = .92$) and women ($\alpha = .89$).

The Personality Inventory for DSM-5-Short Form (PID-5-SF; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013; Maples et al., 2015). The PID-5-SF is a 100-item self-report inventory developed to index the five personality trait domains and their respective facets found in the DSM-5 Section III model. These domains include Disinhibition, Antagonism, Negative Affectivity, Detachment, and Psychoticism. Item responses are based on a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 3. Research has supported its use as a measure of dimensional pathological personality traits (e.g., Anderson et al., 2018; Bach et al., 2016). In the current study we are particularly interested in the Disinhibition

domain and its facets in order to garner personality-based information regarding impulsivity. Internal consistency was .90 for men and .83 for women.

The UPPS-P Impulsive Behavior Scale (UPPS-P; Lynam, Smith, Whiteside, & Cyders, 2006). The UPPS-P is a 59-item self-report measure of five traits believed to make up the construct of impulsivity. The Negative ($\alpha = .89$ for men, $\alpha = .85$ for women) and Positive Urgency ($\alpha = .95$ for men, $\alpha = .95$ for women) subscales assess difficulty resisting cravings and urges when experiencing negative or affective states. The Lack of Perseverance ($\alpha = .65$ for men, $\alpha = .80$ for women) subscale measures the tendency to give up easily because of boredom, fatigue, or task difficulty. The Lack of Premeditation ($\alpha = .65$ for men, $\alpha = .81$ for women) subscale assesses the tendency to act without pausing for deliberation. Finally, the Sensation Seeking ($\alpha = .83$ for men, $\alpha = .86$ for women) subscale measures the tendency to engage in exciting, novel, or risky activities. The five scales have good convergent validity and good discriminant validity (Cyders & Smith, 2007).

Rape Proclivity Measure (RPM; Bohner, Reinhard, Rutz, Sturm, & Kerschbaum, 1998). The RPM assesses participants' self-reported likelihood of committing rape. The measure consists of four scenarios that describe realistic situations of acquaintance rape (varying in severity) and asks participants to imagine themselves in the position of the male character in each scenario. The scenarios were obtained directly from the original author; however, wording was adapted from U.K. English to American English as needed (e.g., "flat" changed to "apartment"). Also at the author's suggestion, anchors were provided only for the end points of the response scale, rather than for each value of the response scale as originally written (G. Bohner, personal communication,

April 9, 2017). Additionally, the scenarios were modified to create a “female perpetrator” version for female participants. After reading each scenario, participants are asked to respond to the following items, presented on 7-point scales: “In this situation, how aroused would you be?” “In this situation, would you have done the same?” and “In this situation, how much would you enjoy getting your way?” The RPM has established good validity using the first four of the five scenarios (Eyssel, Bohner, & Siebler, 2006). Internal consistency in the current study was .80 for men and .76 for women.

Sexual Experiences Survey-Long Form Perpetration (SES-LFP; Koss et al., 1987). The SES is a 20-item self-report measure of perpetration of nonconsensual sexual behavior. The SES consists of behavioral descriptions of various types of perpetration, ranging from unwanted kissing to rape. The first ten items include “noncontact items,” which include actions made toward another individual but do not include any physical contact (e.g., filming another person without consent; making sexual motions to someone, etc.). Participants indicated whether or not they had engaged in each behavior in the past 12 months and since the age of 14. Perpetration frequency was calculated by obtaining a total sum of all items endorsed. Perpetration was also scored according to original scoring guidelines into five nonmutually exclusive categories: Noncontact (e.g., exposing one’s own private parts, masturbating in front of another individual without consent, etc.), Contact (e.g., fondling another individual’s body without penetration), Coercion (e.g., the use of verbal lies or threats ending in penetration or attempted penetration), Attempted Rape (e.g., attempted penetration via force), Rape (e.g., penetration via force). Finally, scores from the SES were also be calculated to determine three types of perpetration methods: Verbal Coercion (the use of verbal pressure,

manipulation, or spreading lies), Sexual Assault Tactics (the use of physical force or threats of physical force), and Exploitation (intentionally supplying another person with alcohol or drugs to obtain sexual contact or taking advantage of a person who is already drunk or high) (Koss et al., 2007; Struckman Johnson, Struckman-Johnson, & Anderson, 2003.) Each category was also dichotomized. Those with less than five missing variables were treated as non-endorsed items (Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016).

Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale-Revised (IRMAS-R; McMahon & Farmer, 2011). The IRMAS-R is a 22 item self-report inventory used to indicate the extent to which individuals believe common misconceptions about sexual assault. Item responses are indicated on a five-point scale. The IRMA-R has been found reliable and valid in college samples (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). The current study observed internal consistency at .91 for men and .88 for women.

Attitudes towards Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973). The AWS is a 25 item self-report scale assessing adherence to traditional gender roles. Item responses were indicated on a four-point scale. This scale has been found to be highly correlated with the original 55 item Attitudes Towards Women scale, which has high internal consistency and test-retest reliability (Spence & Hahn, 1997; Spence et al., 1973). Internal consistency in the current study was .79 for male participants and .78 for female participants.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MC-SDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). The MC-SDS is a 33-item self-report questionnaire that assesses whether or not respondents are concerned with social approval. The measure was used to determine the

validity of participant responses. Internal consistency for the current study was .70 for men and .75 for women.

Experimental Tasks.

Trail Making Test (Lezak, 1995). The Trail Making Test measures task switching and visual attention. Participants are instructed to connect 25 targets. The first set consists of numbers only (1, 2, 3, etc.). The second set consists of letters and numbers (1, A, 2, B, 3, C). If an error is made, the examiner corrects it immediately. Total errors are used as an indicator of participant impulsivity. The Trail Making Test has been found to be a valid measure of impulsivity (Kindlon, Mezzacappa, & Earls, 1995).

Porteus Maze (Porteus, 1965). The Vineland revision of the Porteus Maze test will be used to assess impulsive errors in executive functioning. The test consists of ten mazes, each one increasing in difficulty. Participants must trace their way through the mazes without making mistakes by entering “blind alleys.” Participants obtain a Qualitative score (Q-score) that is intended to reveal any haphazard, impulsive or over-confident habits of action. The higher the Q-score, the more impulsive errors are made (wall crossing, cutting corners, pencil lifts, sinuous course, and/or wrong direction). The Porteus Maze test has been found to be a reliable and valid assessment of cognitive impulsivity (Leshem & Glicksohn, 2007). Internal consistency was .86 for men and .82 for women.

Iowa Gambling Task (Bechara, Demasio, Demasio, & Anderson, 1994). The IGT assesses real life decision-making in a lab setting. Participants are told to maximize profit over the course of 100 selections from one of four decks of cards (A, B, C, and D). Participants are provided minimal information about the decks at the start of the task,

other than some decks are worse than others (Bechara, 2008). Performance is calculated based on the number of advantageous selections (Decks C and D) minus the number of disadvantageous selections (Decks A and B) for the each of the five, 20-card blocks of trials, allowing for comparison of decision making under ambiguity and risk trials (Brand, Recknor, Grabenhorst, & Bechara, 2007). Internal consistency was .67 for men and .63 for women.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Hypothesis 1. Gender Differences in Sexual Aggression Categories and Tactics.

Thirty-seven males (48.1%) and 22 females (18.6%) were classified as perpetrators (endorsing at least 1 item on the SES-LFP). Within the female sample, 19 endorsed Non-Contact, four endorsed Contact, five endorsed Coercion, two endorsed Attempted Rape, and one endorsed completed Rape. Within the male sample, 35 endorsed Non-Contact, two endorsed Contact, 11 endorsed Coercion, three endorsed Attempted Rape, and five endorsed completed Rape. Independent samples t-tests revealed males and females differed significantly in regard to rates of overall perpetration, $t(134.25) = 4.35, p \leq .001, d = .65$, Perpetrator Contact, $t(108.28) = 2.69, p = .008, d = .41$, Non-Contact, $t(95.30) = 3.78, p \leq .001, d = .60$, and Coercion, $t(76.48) = 2.43, p = .018, d = .40$. Although men endorsed higher rates of social desirability as assessed by the MCSDS ($M = 17.96, SD = 4.97$) than women ($M = 16.54, SD = 4.78$), $t(193) = 1.99, p = .048$, averages for both samples fell within the average range (i.e., scores between 9 – 19).

As expected, verbal tactics were the most common method of perpetration, followed by exploitation and physical coercion tactics. Specifically, among men, 13 (16.9%) endorsed Verbal tactics, seven (9.1%) endorsed Exploitation tactics, and three (3.9%) endorsed Sexual Assault tactics. Among females, six (5.1%) endorsed Verbal tactics and two (1.7%) endorsed Exploitation tactics. No females endorsed Sexual Assault tactics (i.e., assault by force). See Table 2 for a breakdown of perpetration categories and tactics. Independent samples t-tests revealed significant differences in use of Verbal tactics between men ($M = 1.12, SD = 3.65$) and women ($M = .25, SD = 1.02$),

$t(86.405) = 2.008, p = .048, d = .33$. Statistically significant differences between the two samples in regard to Exploitation and Sexual Assault tactics were not observed.

Table 2

Perpetration Descriptives

Variable	Male Total (%)	Male Mean (SD)	Female Total (%)	Female Mean (SD)
SES Perpetration	37 (48.1)	.48 (.19)	22 (18.6)	.19 (.39)
SES Non Contact	35 (45.5)	2.87 (4.53)	19 (16.1)	.75 (2.10)
SES Contact	2 (2.6)	.05 (.36)	4 (3.4)	.07 (.47)
SES Coercion	11 (14.3)	.95 (3.20)	5 (4.2)	.05 (.32)
SES Attempted Rape	3 (3.9)	.13 (.68)	2 (1.7)	.01 (.11)
SES Rape	5 (6.5)	.16 (.65)	1 (.8)	.02 (.22)
SES Verbal	13 (16.9)	1.12 (3.65)	6 (5.1)	.25 (1.02)
SES Exploitation	7 (9.1)	.33 (1.58)	2 (1.7)	.10 (.80)
SES Sexual Assault	3 (3.9)	.01 (.12)	--	--

Note. SES = Sexual Experiences Survey.

Preliminary Model Estimation

Prior to analyses, data were screened for outliers and missing data. Two cases were removed from analyses due to missing data, nine cases (seven men, two women) were removed for failing a random responding check (i.e., replying incorrectly to 2 or more out of 7 random responding questions), and one case was removed as an outlier given high endorsement on perpetration skewing analyses. Prior to combining data from male and female participants, a model was developed for male participants and then measurement invariance was investigated across the two groups. The male group was chosen as the reference model given that the majority of previous work on sexual aggression has been in predominantly male samples.

First, latent variables were created for narcissism (NPI, PNI, SNS), impulsivity (UPPS-P, PID-5 Impulsivity, and performance on the experimental tasks) and sexual attitudes (IRMAS and AWS) using Mplus Version 8 software (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using maximum likelihood estimation (ML) was used to estimate the model. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) were used as goodness-of-fit indices in order to determine the fit of the models. Although the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is a widely used fit index, its use in models with small degrees of freedom and small sample sizes is not recommended, as the estimate may exceed cutoffs even in correctly specified models (Kenny, Kaniskan, & McCoach, 2015). Given the small sample size in the current model (Overall $n = 195$, Males = 77, Females = 118), the RMSEA was not determined to be an appropriate measure of goodness of fit. The fit statistics produced by the first model, involving latent variables of narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual attitudes for male

participants only, suggested poor fit ($CFI = .766$; $TLI = .713$). Additionally, the Standardized Root Mean Square (SRMSR) was notably poor (.101). See Table 3 for the original model. Based on modification indices, the following scales were removed from the model to improve overall model fit: SNS, UPPS-P lack of Perseverance, UPPS-P Sensation Seeking, and UPPS-P Positive Urgency.

The second model demonstrated improved model fit ($CFI = .942$, $TLI = .914$). Importantly, Mplus software indicated the need for the removal of the sexual attitudes construct entirely, due to a non-positive definite that suggested duplicate information in the model. In other words, analyses suggested that the latent sexual attitudes construct was highly overlapping with other latent constructs, necessitating its removal from the model in order to achieve appropriate fit. The final model demonstrated good model fit ($CFI = .956$, $TLI = .930$) and resulted in latent constructs of narcissism (NPI, PNI) and impulsivity (UPPSP-Negative Urgency, PID-5-SF Impulsivity facet, IGT, Mazes, and Trails). See Figure 1 for the final model for the male sample.

To investigate measurement invariance, a series of multi-group CFAs were conducted in order to determine whether the latent narcissism and impulsivity factors were measured similarly across gender. Results indicated that evidence of configural invariance was not found and no further analyses of invariance were needed (see Table 3). Given that the factor structure developed for males did not map onto the female sample, a separate model was developed and the male and female samples were analyzed separately.

Table 3

Model Estimation

Model	X^2	df	p-value	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	BIC
Original Male Model	138.74	74	<.001	.128	.77	.71	.10	5824.29
Final Male Model	19.07	13	.12	.094	.96	.93	.08	3242.89
Original Female Model	159.92	74	<.001	.124	.63	.54	.10	8706.96
Final Female Model	41.52	17	<.001	.14	.86	.77	.08	5295.67
Configural Invariance	64.55	20	<.001	.19	.77	.65	.10	7038.40

Note. X^2 = chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, TLI = Tucker Lewis Index, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion.

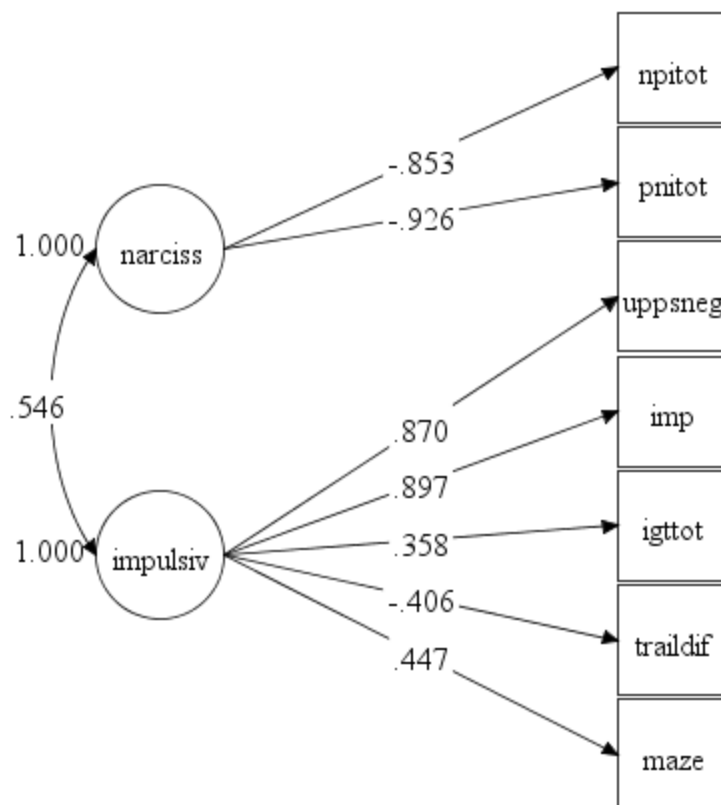


Figure 1. Final Male Model. narciss = Narcissism, impulsiv = Impulsivity, npitot = Total NPI score, pnitot = Total PNI score, uppsneg = UPPS-P Negative Urgency, imp = Personality Inventory for DSM5 Impulsivity, igtot = Total IGT score, traildif = Trail Making Test, maze = Porteus Maze.

Male Sample: Reliability Analyses

The means, standard deviations, and reliability coefficients for the study measures for males are presented in Table 4. The reliability coefficients for Lack of Premeditation and Lack of Perseverance UPPS-P scales in the male sample were below standard cutoffs ($\alpha = .65$ for both) considering previously reported reliability coefficients (Mouilso, Calhoun, & Rosenbloom, 2013). Notably, the two scales demonstrated adequate inter-item correlations (r 's = .27 and .19). The maladaptive facet of the NPI demonstrated inadequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .69$) with acceptable inter-item correlation mean ($r = .17$). The reliability of the IGT total score was also poor ($\alpha = .67$) with an acceptable inter-item correlation mean ($r = .30$); however, this is relatively consistent with prior research (Gansler, Jerram, Vannorsdall, & Schretlen, 2011). All other reliability coefficients were acceptable (α 's = .79 to .95).

Correlations Among Study Measures

Correlation coefficients were calculated to examine the relationship between variables of interest and are presented in Table 5. For male participants, all narcissism measures were moderately correlated with one another as expected. Sexual narcissism was moderately correlated with acceptance of rape myths ($r = .48, p \leq .001$). Participant's total score on the NPI demonstrated a small correlation with rape myth acceptance ($r = .27, p = .027$). The maladaptive facet of the NPI was weakly correlated rape myth acceptance ($r = .25, p = .036$), and performance on the Trail Making Test ($r = -.24, p = .035$). The PNI total score was weakly correlated with Trails ($r = -.32, p = .013$), UPPSP Negative Urgency ($r = .27, p = .036$), and PID-5-SF Impulsivity ($r = .32, p = .012$). PNI Grandiosity was weakly correlated with Trails ($r = -.25, p = .031$). PNI Vulnerability

demonstrated small to moderate correlations with rape myth acceptance ($r = .33, p = .009$), IGT performance, ($r = -.34, p = .011$), Trails ($r = -.31, p = .013$), UPPSP Negative Urgency ($r = .43, p < .001$), and PID-5-SF Impulsivity ($r = .42, p < .001$).

Regarding the experimental tasks, IGT performance was weakly correlated with UPPSP negative urgency ($r = -.24, p = .049$) and PID-5-SF Impulsivity ($r = -.25, p = .045$). Maze performance was not significantly correlated with any impulsivity variables. Trails performance demonstrated small correlations with UPPSP Negative Urgency ($r = -.34, p = .002$).

Table 4

Descriptive Information for Study Measures: Male Sample

Scale	Alpha	Mean (SD)	Range
AWS	.79	51.32 (6.06)	36 - 61
IRMAS	.91	48.17 (14.44)	22 -99
MCSDS	.70	17.96 (4.97)	6-29
NPI	.88	16.02 (7.51)	3-34
Adaptive	.84	12.18 (5.67)	3-25
Maladaptive	.69	3.68 (2.47)	0-11
PNI	.92	174.13 (55.33)	58-328
Grandiosity	.85	61.81 (17.55)	14.11-95.17
Vulnerability	.89	78.74 (32.33)	11.09-162.18
SNS	.79	44.26 (11.19)	31-100
UPPS-P Lacks Perseverance	.65	1.86 (.45)	1-3
UPPS-P Lacks Premeditation	.65	1.78 (.52)	1-3.45
UPPS-P Negative Urgency	.89	2.16 (.65)	1-3.67
UPPS-P Positive Urgency	.95	1.93 (.67)	1-3.64
UPPS-P Sensation Seeking	.83	2.99(.57)	1.58-4.00
PID-5 Impulsivity	.90	.86 (.73)	0-2.75
RPM (1-4)	.80	10.36 (4.77)	8-36
Mazes	.86	11.51 (9.52)	0-42
IGT Total	.67	22.21 (29.61)	-38 - 100
Trails Time Difference	--	41.71 (19.46)	-4 - 108

Note. IRMAS = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale, MCSDS = Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, NPI = Narcissistic Personality Inventory, PNI = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, SNS = Sexual Narcissism Scale, PID-5-SF = Personality Inventory for the DSM5, RPM = Rape Proclivity Measure, Mazes = Porteus Mazes, IGT = Iowa Gambling Task, Trails = Trail Making Test,; *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$

Table 5

Intercorrelations between Study Measures: Male Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. SNS	1								
2. NPI	.39	1							
3. NPI-A	.33	.97	1						
4. NPI-M	.41	.83	.66	1					
5. PNI	.54	.48	.40	.53	1				
6. PNI-G	.41	.57	.52	.54	.78	1			
7. PNI-V	.37	.38	.33	.41	.93	.62	1		
8. IRMAS	.48	.27	.23	.25	.14	.18	.33	1	
9. AWS	-.23	-.20	-.18	-.18	-.23	-.11	-.21	-.25	1
10. IGT	-.01	-.14	-.14	-.13	-.26	-.25	-.33	.04	-.08
11. Mazes	-.16	-.03	-.04	-.00	.03	.03	-.01	-.10	-.03
12. Trails	-.18	-.05	.02	-.24	-.32	-.25	-.31	.010	-.12
13. UPPS-P-Pers	.00	-.25	-.26	-.16	.02	-.19	.10	-.11	-.03
14. UPPS-P-Premed	.01	.00	-.01	.01	-.11	-.13	-.03	.14	-.06
15. UPPS-P-NU	.11	.10	.10	.12	.27	.11	.43	-.04	-.06
16. UPPS-P-PU	.30	.32	.33	.24	.40	.28	.51	.07	-.28
17. UPPS-P-SS	.26	.48	.46	.43	.29	.33	.26	.11	-.01
18. PID-5-SF Impulsivity	.09	.19	.19	.15	.31	.22	.42	.14	-.11

Note. *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$

Table 5

Intercorrelations between Study Measures: Male Sample Continued

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
11. Mazes	-.03	1						
12. Trails	.14	.06	1					
13. UPPS-P-Pers	.20	-.16	.010	1				
14. UPPS-P-Premed	.22	-.13	-.21	.39	1			
15. UPPS-P-NU	-.24	-.12	-.34	.32	.36	1		
16. UPPS-P-PU	-.26	-.10	-.31	.08	.27	.70	1	
17. UPPS-P-SS	-.21	-.08	-.29	-.26	.02	.13	.38	1
18. PID-5-SF Impulsivity	-.25	-.21	-.07	.18	.27	.61	.60	.16

Note. SNS = Sexual Narcissism Scale, NPI = Narcissistic Personality Inventory, NPI-A = Narcissistic Personality Inventory- Adaptive, NPI-M = Narcissistic Personality Inventory- Maladaptive, PNI = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, PNI-G = Pathological Narcissism Inventory – Grandiosity, PNI-V = Pathological Narcissism Inventory – Vulnerability, IRMAS = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale, IGT = Iowa Gambling Task, Mazes = Porteus Mazes, Trails = Trail Making Test, UPPS-P-Pers = UPPS-P Lacks Perseverance, UPPS-P-Premed = UPPS-P Lacks Premeditation, UPPS-P-NU = UPPS-P Negative Urgency, UPPS-P-PU = UPPS-P Positive Urgency, UPPS-P-SS = UPPS-P Sensation Seeking, PID-5-SF = Personality Inventory for the DSM5; *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$

Hypothesis 2a. The relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual aggression/ rape proclivity.

In order to test the first primary hypothesis, examining the overall relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual aggression/ rape proclivity, a linear regression was employed using the latent variables developed in final male model (Narcissism and Impulsivity) using Mplus software. Sexual aggression, as measured by the total SES score, was regressed onto the latent constructs of Narcissism and

Impulsivity. Results were partially consistent with hypotheses that narcissism and impulsivity would both significantly predict sexual aggression. Specifically, Narcissism ($\beta = .48, p = .002$), not Impulsivity ($\beta = .04, p = .805$), significantly predicted sexual aggression. A second regression analysis was run to examine the overall relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and rape proclivity. Rape proclivity was regressed onto narcissism and impulsivity. As with sexual aggression, Narcissism ($\beta = -.39, p = .002$), but not Impulsivity, ($\beta = -.18, p = .257$), significantly predicted rape proclivity among male participants.

Hypothesis 3a. Nuanced Assessment of Narcissism

In order to assess the relationship between sexual aggression and narcissism as a multifaceted construct, a series of bivariate correlations were examined. Only moderate correlations (i.e., $r \geq .30$) were interpreted in order to account for familywise error. Narcissism scales included in analyses were: NPI, PNI, SNS, and each of their respective scales. Sexual aggression variables included the following: total scores within non-mutually exclusive categories including Attempted Rape, Coercion, Contact, Non Contact, and Rape, Perpetration Frequency (SES total score), as well as non-mutually exclusive tactics of sexual aggression including Exploitation, Verbal Coercion, and Sexual Assault. See Materials section for detailed description of each outcome variable. Results are presented in Table 6.

Nonpathological narcissism: Consistent with hypotheses, the NPI total score did not demonstrate notable correlations with sexual aggression outcomes. Upon breaking the NPI into its adaptive and maladaptive scales, a more nuanced understanding of this relationship can be seen. Specifically, the adaptive scale was not significantly associated

with sexual aggression outcomes, as expected. In contrast, the NPI maladaptive scale was moderately associated with Attempted Rape ($r = .40, p < .001$) and Contact ($r = .31, p = .008$). That is, those who endorsed higher maladaptive narcissistic traits via the NPI also reported higher rates of attempted penetration and completed acts of fondling via forceful and/or incapacitation methods. Regarding sexual aggression tactics, the NPI Maladaptive facet was moderately correlated with sexual aggression via Exploitation ($r = .35, p = .003$). As expected, the NPI and its facets were not significantly associated with rape proclivity.

Pathological narcissism: Consistent with hypotheses, narcissism as assessed via the PNI total score revealed significant correlations with Coercion ($r = .37, p = .004$) and Perpetration Frequency ($r = .36, p = .007$). That is, those who endorsed overall pathological narcissistic traits, also endorsed engaging in penetration or attempted penetration via coercive tactics. Contrary to hypotheses, no significant correlations were observed between PNI Grandiosity or Vulnerability and sexual aggression at a moderate level. Regarding tactics of sexual aggression, PNI total score ($r = .38, p = .003$) and PNI Vulnerability ($r = .25, p = .048$) were associated with sexual aggression via Verbal Coercion tactics. Predictions regarding correlates of rape proclivity were partially supported. Specifically, PNI total score, ($r = .33, p = .010$) was associated with rape proclivity, as expected. Contrary to hypotheses, PNI Vulnerability ($r = .36, p = .004$) was also significantly associated with rape proclivity, whereas PNI Grandiosity was not.

Sexual narcissism: As expected, SNS scores demonstrated moderate to strong correlations with sexual aggression outcomes. Specifically, SNS total scores were correlated with SES Coercion ($r = .58, p \leq .001$) and Perpetration Frequency ($r = .47, p \leq$

.001). An examination of the SNS subscales revealed some interesting findings. Specifically, Sexual Entitlement was significantly related to Coercion ($r = .69, p \leq .001$) and Perpetration Frequency ($r = .45, p \leq .001$). Sexual Exploitation was significantly associated with Attempted Rape, ($r = .32, p = .005$), Coercion, ($r = .35, p = .002$) Contact, ($r = .31, p = .006$), and Perpetration Frequency, ($r = .50, p \leq .001$). The SNS Low Sexual Empathy and Sexual Skill subscales were not significantly correlated with sexual aggression measures. An examination of sexual aggression tactics revealed SNS total score ($r = .58, p \leq .001$), Sexual Entitlement, ($r = .65, p \leq .001$), and Sexual Exploitation ($r = .40, p \leq .001$) demonstrated a strong correlation with Verbal Coercion tactics. Sexual Exploitation was also significantly correlated with Exploitation tactics ($r = .33, p \leq .003$). No measures of narcissism were significantly correlated with sexual aggression via Sexual Assault tactics. Regarding rape proclivity, SNS total ($r = .45, p \leq .001$), Low Sexual Empathy ($r = .37, p = .001$) and Sexual Exploitation ($r = .55, p \leq .001$) were all associated with rape proclivity. Notably, SNS Low Sexual Empathy was not associated with any sexual aggression outcomes as assessed by the SES; however, a moderate correlation was observed with rape proclivity.

Table 6.

Narcissism and Sexual Aggression Outcomes: Male Sample

	SNS	NPI	NPI-A	NPI-M	PNI	PNI-G	PNI-V
Perpetration Frequency	.47	.13	.05	.27	.36	.19	.30
Non-Contact	.19	.06	.02	.14	.03	.08	.06
Contact	.15	.19	.12	.31	.22	.17	.23
Coercion	.58	-.01	-.04	.09	.37	.12	.21
Attempted Rape	.15	.27	.18	.40	.23	.23	.24
Rape	.13	.18	.12	.26	.18	.11	.20
Verbal Tactics	.58	.05	.02	.12	.38	.15	.25
Exploitation Tactics	.16	.23	.15	.34	.22	.18	.24
Sexual Assault Tactics	-.06	.07	.06	.07	.05	-.01	.06
RPM	.45	.18	.19	.10	.33	.18	.36

Note. RPM = Rape Proclivity Measure, *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$.

Preliminary Model Estimation for the Female Sample

The original hypothesized model was applied to the female sample in order to gauge model fit with females. Fit statistics were poor (CFI = .629, TLI = .544). Based on modification indices, the following scales were removed from the model to improve overall model fit: UPPSP Lack of Premeditation, Lack of Perseverance, Sensation Seeking, and Positive Urgency, Mazes, and SNS. After removal of these variables from the model, model fit improved to marginal (CFI = .859, TLI = .768; see Figure 2). Mplus software suggested modification indices involving correlations of various theoretically unrelated variables within the model (e.g., NPI with IGT, attitudes toward sex with IGT, etc.); however, correlating these variables did not make sense from a theoretical

perspective. As such, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed in order to investigate which factors may be naturally occurring within the female population. Results from the EFA suggested a two-factor model with acceptable fit statistics (CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.01); however, an examination of factor loadings suggests this model was disorganized and lacked theoretical backing. As such, it was determined that latent variables representing narcissism and impulsivity in the female sample could not be estimated using the current data. Therefore, variables were examined independently (rather than as latent constructs).

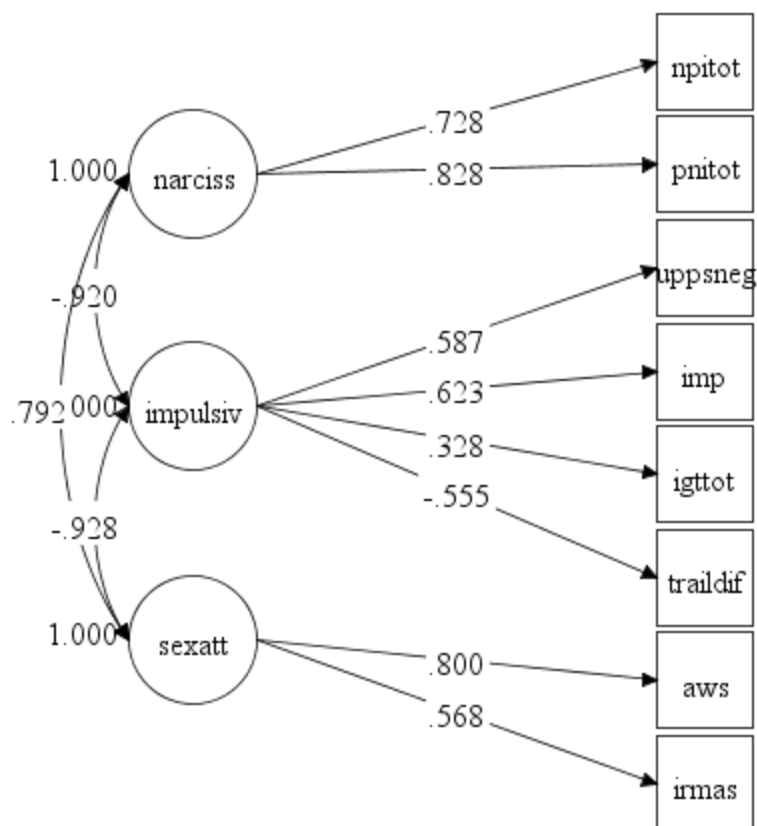


Figure 2. Final Female Model. narciss = Narcissism, impulsiv = Impulsivity, sexatt = Sexual Attitudes, npitot = Total NPI score, pnitot = Total PNI score, uppsneg = UPPS-P Negative Urgency, imp = Personality Inventory for DSM5 Impulsivity, igtot = Total IGT score, traildif = Trail Making Test, aws = Attitudes Toward Women Scale, IRMAS = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency was calculated using Cronbach's alpha for the study measures within the female sample. Alphas, means, standard deviations, and ranges can be found in Table 7. Contrary to the male sample, the UPPSP scales all demonstrated good to strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .80$ to $.95$). The maladaptive facet of the NPI ($\alpha = .47$, mean inter-item correlation = $.07$) and the IGT ($\alpha = .63$, mean inter-item correlation = $.22$) demonstrated poor internal consistency as they did in the male sample. The reliability of the remaining measures were all within an acceptable range ($\alpha = .72$ to $.95$).

Correlations Among Study Measures

Within the female sample, sexual narcissism (SNS) was only correlated with measures of pathological or maladaptive narcissism; NPI Maladaptive ($r = .31, p = .002$), PNI Total ($r = .31, p = .002$), PNI Grandiosity ($r = .20, p = .034$) and PNI Vulnerability ($r = .26, p = .010$), but not measures of adaptive or nonpathological narcissism; NPI Total ($r = .20, p = .051$) and NPI Adaptive ($r = .17, p = .14$). SNS was also the only variable significantly associated with attitudes toward women ($r = -.25, p = .014$). SNS was associated with three UPPSP scales, Lacks Premeditation ($r = .22, p = .019$), Negative Urgency ($r = .40, p < .001$), and Positive Urgency ($r = .33, p < .001$). Regarding nonpathological narcissism, associations with impulsivity measures varied at the facet level. Specifically, NPI total score was moderately associated with UPPSP Lacks Perseverance ($r = -.31, p = .002$), Lacks Premeditation ($r = .21, p = .038$), and Sensation Seeking ($r = .33, p = .001$). An examination of the facets revealed that although NPI Total and NPI Adaptive facets were not significantly correlated, the NPI Maladaptive facet was associated with UPPSP Negative Urgency ($r = .19, p = .049$) and Positive

Urgency ($r = .24, p = .012$). Pathological narcissism, as assessed by the PNI and its facets, was moderately related to UPPSP Negative Urgency, PNI Total ($r = .44, p < .001$), and Positive Urgency. Although both Grandiosity and Vulnerability were significantly associated with both facets, Vulnerability demonstrated stronger relationships in both instances; Negative Urgency ($r = .49, p < .001$) and Positive Urgency ($r = .43, p < .001$). Additionally, PNI Total ($r = .23, p = .019$) and Vulnerability ($r = .23, p = .020$), but not Grandiosity ($r = .15, p = .108$), were associated with PID-5-SF Impulsivity. Additionally, PNI Vulnerability was the only measure associated with rape myth acceptance for females ($r = .23, p = .020$).

The experimental tasks demonstrated only one significant relationship across all narcissism and impulsivity measures. Specifically, SNS was associated with performance on the Trail Making Test ($r = .29, p = .002$). See Table 8 for all intercorrelations.

Table 7

Descriptive Information for Study Measures: Female Sample

Scale	Alpha	Mean (SD)	Range
AWS	.78	53.45 (5.96)	29-62
IRMAS	.88	38.36 (12.22)	22-92
MCSDS	.75	16.56 (4.77)	4-28
NPI	.83	13.94 (6.37)	0-32
Adaptive	.81	10.96 (5.10)	0-24
Maladaptive	.47	2.96 (1.86)	0-8
PNI	.89	194.65 (55.15)	71-377
PNI Grandiosity	.72	62.80 (22.75)	21.17-243.33
PNI Vulnerable	.87	94.35 (37.78)	1.18-167.18
SNS	.80	42.73 (10.50)	24-83
UPPSP Lacks Perseverance	.80	1.93 (9.48)	1-3.20
UPPSP Lacks Premeditation	.81	1.78 (.49)	1-3
UPPSP Negative Urgency	.85	2.32 (.64)	1-4.33
UPPSP Positive Urgency	.95	1.84 (.68)	1-3.86
UPPSP Sensation Seeking	.86	2.68 (.69)	1.18-3.92
PID-5 Impulsivity	.83	.94 (.80)	0-3
RPM (1-4)	.76	9.57 (3.57)	8-27
Mazes	.82	15.49 (10.28)	0-49
IGT Total	.63	6.80 (23.41)	-42 - 58
Trails Time Difference		38.02 (23.43)	6-143

Note. IRMAS = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale, MCSDS = Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, NPI = Narcissistic Personality Inventory, PNI = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, SNS = Sexual Narcissism Scale, PID-5-SF = Personality Inventory for the DSM5, RPM = Rape Proclivity Measure, Mazes = Porteus Mazes, IGT = Iowa Gambling Task, Trails = Trail Making Test,; *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$

Table 8

Intercorrelations between Study Measures: Female Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. SNS	1								
2. NPI	.20	1							
3. NPI-A	.17	.97	1						
4. NPI-M	.31	.75	.58	1					
5. PNI	.31	-.09	-.15	.22	1				
6. PNI-G	.20	.15	.10	.24	.70	1			
7. PNI-V	.26	-.20	-.26	.11	.90	.35	1		
8. IRMAS	.15	.12	.11	.14	.18	.06	.24	1	
9. AWS	-.25	-.08	-.09	-.04	-.04	-.00	-.14	-.62	1
10. IGT	-.08	.12	.12	.04	.12	.00	.08	-.13	.08
11. Mazes	.12	.05	.03	.18	.03	.18	-.04	.09	-.11
12. Trails	.29	.08	.09	.02	.03	.14	-.05	-.01	-.17
13. UPPS-P-Pers	.07	-.30	-.26	-.15	.10	.01	.17	-.24	.15
14. UPPS-P-Premed	.22	<i>.21</i>	<i>.20</i>	<i>.20</i>	.03	.11	-.03	-.12	.00
15. UPPS-P-NU	.40	-.03	-.06	<i>.19</i>	.44	.23	.49	.06	-.11
16. UPPS-P-PU	.33	.09	.05	<i>.24</i>	.44	.30	.43	.17	-.22
17. UPPS-P-SS	.02	.33	.32	.25	.07	.17	-.04	.17	-.05
18. PID-5-SF-Imp	<i>.21</i>	.10	.08	.16	.23	.15	.23	.16	-.17

Note. italicized $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$

Table 9

Intercorrelations between Study Measures: Female Sample Continued

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
11. Mazes	-.06	1	.17	-.05	.06	-.05	.05	-.01
12. Trails	-.11	.17	1	-.10	-.11	.04	.10	.00
13. UPPS-P-Pers	-.08	-.05	-.10	1	.50	.32	.10	-.21
14. UPPS-P-Premed	.03	.06	-.11	.50	1	.27	.29	.27
15. UPPS-P-NU	-.11	-.05	.04	.32	.27	1	.75	.27
16. UPPS-P-PU	-.13	.05	.10	.10	.29	.75	1	.46
17. UPPS-P-SS	.04	-.01	.00	-.21	.27	.27	.46	1
18. PID-5-SF Impulsivity	-.10	.07	.03	.18	.44	.63	.67	.40

Note. SNS = Sexual Narcissism Scale, NPI = Narcissistic Personality Inventory, NPI-A = Narcissistic Personality Inventory- Adaptive, NPI-M = Narcissistic Personality Inventory- Maladaptive, PNI = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, PNI-G = Pathological Narcissism Inventory – Grandiosity, PNI-V = Pathological Narcissism Inventory – Vulnerability, IRMAS = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale, IGT = Iowa Gambling Task, Mazes = Porteus Mazes, Trails = Trail Making Test, UPPS-P-Pers = UPPS-P Lacks Perseverance, UPPS-P-Premed = UPPS-P Lacks Premeditation, UPPS-P-NU = UPPS-P Negative Urgency, UPPS-P-PU = UPPS-P Positive Urgency, UPPS-P-SS = UPPS-P Sensation Seeking, PID-5-SF = Personality Inventory for the DSM5; *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$

Hypothesis 2b. The relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual aggression/rape proclivity.

In order to examine the relationship between narcissism, impulsivity and sexual aggression within the female sample, perpetration frequency was regressed onto individual measures for narcissism (NPI, PNI, and SNS) and impulsivity (PID-5-SF Impulsivity, UPPS-P scales, TMT, Mazes, and IGT). The overall model was significant, $f(14,31) = 2.81, p = .008$ indicating the combination of the variables significantly

predicted overall sexual aggression. An examination of individual variables revealed that PNI ($\beta = .72, p = .003$), UPPS-P Lacks Premeditation ($\beta = .56, p = .011$), UPPS-P Positive Urgency ($\beta = -.57, p = .021$), UPPS-P Sensation-Seeking ($\beta = .50, p = .005$), and Mazes ($\beta = .37, p = .018$) contributed meaningfully to the equation. A second regression analysis was run to examine the overall relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and rape proclivity. The RPM total score was regressed onto the same variables; however, the regression equation was nonsignificant $f(14,49) = 1.02, p = .452$, indicating the combination of sexual attitudes, narcissism, and impulsivity measures did not predict sexual aggression frequency.

Hypothesis 3b. Nuanced assessment of narcissism

A series of bivariate correlations were examined among the female sample in order to examine the relationship between narcissism as a multifaceted construct and sexual aggression. Only moderate correlations (i.e., $r = .30$ or higher) were interpreted in order to account for familywise error. Narcissism scales included in analyses were: NPI, PNI, SNS, and each of their respective scales. Sexual aggression variables included the following: non-mutually exclusive categories including Attempted Rape, Coercion, Contact, Non-Contact, and Rape, Perpetration Frequency (SES total), as well as tactics of sexual aggression including Exploitation, Verbal Coercion, and Sexual Assault. See Materials section for detailed description of each outcome variable. Results are presented in Table 9.

Nonpathological narcissism. As expected, results indicated that the overall NPI score was not significantly related to any sexual aggression category. Notably, when examined via its facets, significant associations can be seen between maladaptive NPI

scores and Attempted Rape ($r = .33, p = .003$) and overall perpetration frequency ($r = .33, p = .007$), which is consistent with hypotheses. The adaptive facet of the NPI was not significantly correlated with any perpetration category, as expected. Regarding sexual aggression tactics, given that no females endorsed perpetration through the use of force (i.e., “Sexual Assault tactics,”) correlations were computed for only Verbal and Exploitation tactics. Maladaptive NPI scores were the only significant correlation observed. Consistent with hypotheses and prior literature, a moderate correlation with Exploitation tactics was observed ($r = .36, p = .002$) for female perpetrators.

Pathological narcissism. Overall PNI scores were significantly associated with Non-Contact perpetration ($r = .30, p = .002$). More specifically, the vulnerability facet of the PNI was associated with Non-Contact perpetration ($r = .30, p = .002$) as well as overall Perpetration frequency ($r = .30, p = .013$). The grandiosity facet was not significantly associated with any perpetration outcome. There were no significant correlations between PNI total or its facets and sexual aggression tactics or rape proclivity.

Sexual narcissism. Contrary to the relationship observed within the male sample, sexual narcissism and the SNS facets were not significantly related to any sexual aggression category. No correlations above the aforementioned threshold ($r \geq .30$) were observed between SNS and rape proclivity.

Table 10

Narcissism and Sexual Aggression Outcomes: Female Sample

	SNS	NPI	NPI-A	NPI-M	PNI	PNI-G	PNI-V
Perpetration Frequency	.12	-.05	-.10	.33	.23	.03	.30
Non-Contact	.16	-.02	-.04	.11	.30	.20	.30
Contact	.12	-.08	-.08	.17	.12	-.00	.18
Coercion	.02	-.0	-.06	.30	.10	-.04	.19
Attempted Rape	.12	--	--	.33	.10	-.02	.17
Rape	.13	--	--	.32	.11	-.01	.17
Verbal Tactics	.12	-.15	-.12	.19	.08	.01	.14
Exploitation Tactics	.14	.18	.16	.36	.11	-.02	.17
Sexual Assault Tactics	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
RPM	.19	.18	.13	.24	.12	.15	.11

Note. RPM = Rape Proclivity Measure, *italicized* $p \leq .05$; **bold** $p \leq .01$.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

The current study expands on literature regarding the relationship between narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual aggression among male and female college students. A majority of prior research on narcissism and impulsivity have failed to take into account the heterogeneous nature of the two constructs. Narcissism, which is thought to consist of nonpathological and pathological components, is often assessed with the NPI. This is problematic because the total score of the NPI more accurately reflects only that of nonpathological narcissism (Ackerman, et al., 2011). Although a maladaptive facet can be extracted within the NPI scale, a majority of research utilizes a total score, obscuring the picture of the relationship with sexual assault. Similar problems can be seen in prior research on impulsivity and sexual aggression, with more recent research highlighting five distinct facets. Given that each construct is multifaceted, the current study examined the constructs as a whole in addition to their respective facets. Furthermore, this study incorporated the use of experimental tasks to gauge behavioral disinhibition and bridge the gap inherent to self-report measures.

In addition to providing a more nuanced approach to assessment of the aforementioned constructs in relation to sexual aggression, the current study expanded this research to a female population. Not only has female perpetration been far less researched, but much of the research that does exist has assumed similarities between the two genders without careful examination of differences in perpetration patterns. Overall, the results from this study suggested men and women demonstrated differential patterns of narcissism and impulsivity. This finding in and of itself suggests that applying a male-

derived theory to a female sample is inappropriate, or at the very least insufficient, given the differential endorsement of such constructs. Indeed, it is important that men and women be examined and discussed separately given these differences. Despite recent literature suggesting similar rates of perpetration between college men and women (Schatzel-Murphy, Harris, Knight, & Milburn, 2009; Struckman-Johnson, Struckman-Johnson, & Anderson, 2003), men in the current study endorsed higher rates of overall perpetration as well as various perpetration categories including Contact, Non-Contact, and Coercion. This difference between genders does not appear to be a function of increased social desirability on the part of female participants, as both men and women endorsed rates of social desirability within the acceptable range. There are a number of possible explanations for this discrepancy. First, it is possible that males in this sample truly engaged in higher rates of sexual aggression when compared to female counterparts. This would be consistent with earlier research that has demonstrated that men tend to engage in more sexually aggressive behaviors than women (Hogben, Byrne, & Hamburger, 1995; O'Sullivan, Byers, & Finkelmann, 1998). These findings may be a function of the socialization process in which men, who may be perceived as more dominant, act in a manner consistent with these perceptions and extend this dominance into sexual encounters. Acting in an aggressive manner, particularly in sexual encounters, may reinforce the concept of being "a real man" (Malamuth, 1998). Alternatively, these findings may also be a result of the measures utilized to gauge sexual aggression, which ultimately reflects the larger problem with assessing female sexual aggression. Specifically, the SES-LFP was originally developed to assess sexual aggression conducted by males and later adapted to a female population by incorporating gender

neutral language (Koss et al., 2007). This reflects a pattern within female sexual aggression research in which theories and measures start with those that apply to men, and then are subsequently adapted to apply to women, assuming similarities between the two genders. Indeed, adapting gender-specific language without altering the content of items assumes perpetration is identical between the genders and lacks appreciation for potential qualitative differences in aggression. As such, it is possible that the SES-LFP may more accurately gauge men's true engagement in sexual aggression as compared to women. Further, the variable ways with which sexual aggression is operationalized and defined may also account for differences in perpetration rates observed across studies.

Consistent with hypotheses and prior literature (Banyard, et al, 2007; Russell & Oswald, 2001 & 2002), verbal coercion was the most commonly reported tactic of sexual aggression among both men and women. Exploitation tactics via intoxication were the second most utilized and sexual aggression tactics, or forceful tactics, were the least commonly endorsed tactics among both genders. Physical aggression has been routinely and unsurprisingly uncommon among female perpetrators, whereas male perpetrators tend to endorse all methods of perpetration. This is quite possibly an extension of social norms and socialization processes. Women also tend to be smaller in stature and may rely on utilizing more subtle (i.e., verbal) methods to perpetrate against men in order to maximize the likelihood of obtaining their desired outcome. That is, these differences in tactics may exist as a result of physiological differences and social learning (Ellis, 1998).

Male Sample

The original hypothesized model for male perpetrators included latent constructs for narcissism, impulsivity, and sexual attitudes. The need for the removal of the sexual

attitudes construct entirely was surprising given that the construct is conceptually separate from the other two latent constructs. This may indicate there is substantial overlap between sexual attitudes and the other two constructs such that a latent construct pertaining to sexual attitudes does not offer unique information in the context of the other variables. Importantly, sexual narcissism as assessed via the SNS did not map onto the latent variable Narcissism developed in this model. This poses the question of whether sexual narcissism, as proposed by Widman and McNulty (2010), captures personality-based narcissism as the NPI and PNI appear to, or whether this scale more accurately depicts attitudinal sexual entitlement. If the latter is more accurate, then sexual narcissism would be more appropriately understood in the same context as rape myth acceptance and attitudes toward women, as opposed to personality traits. Further research is needed to clarify this potential distinction.

UPPS-P Negative Urgency, PID-5-SF impulsivity, and the experimental tasks (TMT, IGT, Mazes) all mapped onto the latent construct of Impulsivity. Interestingly, negative urgency was the only scale from the UPPS-P measure to map onto the latent construct, suggesting the possibility that the other scales do not capture impulsivity in the same manner. Of note, given that the experimental tasks were determined to be appropriate for the Impulsivity construct, this provides further support for the utility of decision-making tasks in gauging impulsive behaviors and bridging the gap inherent in self-report measures (Bobadilla, Wampler, & Taylor, 2012; Yechiam, et al., 2008).

The utility of examining these constructs as latent variables, as opposed to independent constructs, rests in the ability to account for the multidimensional nature of narcissism and impulsivity. As such, we avoid the flaws of prior studies that have

investigated only one facet (e.g., nonpathological narcissism) of each construct and generalized findings to the construct as a whole. This problematic pattern of investigation limits and/or confounds our understanding of the overarching utility of the construct as a whole *in addition to* its facets. That is, studies that have assessed global narcissism do not allow for true appreciation of the importance of pathological, nonpathological, vulnerable, and grandiose narcissism in addition to the entire construct in explaining sexual aggression.

Overall, the current results indicated that Narcissism was more useful than Impulsivity in predicting sexual aggression and rape proclivity among college men. The utility of narcissism in the regression equation is consistent with prior research that has examined narcissism via its components as opposed to a global construct (Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016). Further, these results can be viewed, at least in part, in line with the narcissistic reactance theory proposed by Baumeister et al., 2002. That is, narcissistic college men, who endorsed overall higher rates of entitlement, inflated self-esteem, and perhaps lower empathy, demonstrated increased likelihood of engaging in sexual aggression toward females. This entitlement may represent not only a general entitlement endowed to them by a Western, patriarchal society, but an entitlement toward female's bodies that manifests in sexually aggressive ways.

The lack of utility of Impulsivity in the overall relationship was surprising, given previous research that has found associations between sexual aggression and low self-control and impulsivity (Mouilso, Calhoun, & Rosenbloom, 2013; Franklin, Bouffard, & Pratt, 2012). It was hypothesized that in addition to inflated, grandiose self-esteem and entitlement (narcissism), difficulty inhibiting behavior and increased reactivity

(impulsivity) would incrementally contribute to increased likelihood of sexual aggression. Instead, impulsivity was nonsignificant, suggesting that when narcissism is accounted for, disinhibition was not a primary contributing factor to sexual aggression. These findings have important implications not only for empirical investigation into sexual aggression but for understanding perpetrators' accounts of their own experiences. For instance, affect regulation deficits are a component of many sexual aggression theories in which individuals are suspected to sexually aggress as a result of positive or adverse, intense emotional experiences or due to deficits in an ability to plan and think through actions. Findings from this study suggest that although these deficits may exist, it may be the narcissistic traits of these individuals that actually capture their tendency toward sexual aggression, rather than affective dysregulation.

Examination into the multidimensional nature of narcissism also provided support for the need for a nuanced understanding of this construct. Similar to Mouilso and Calhoun (2016), pathological narcissism, rather than nonpathological narcissism, as whole constructs were correlated with various sexual aggression outcomes. These findings are consistent with the notion that the NPI total score primarily assesses an adaptive, perhaps healthier expression of narcissism that is not associated with maladjustment (Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016; Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). Also consistent with prior research is the finding that when the NPI is parsed into adaptive and maladaptive components, maladaptive narcissism demonstrated notable associations with sexual aggression categories (Abbey et al., 2011; Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016). This finding is in line with theories of sexual aggression, as the subscales of Entitlement and Exploitativeness are conceptually similar to identified correlates of sexual aggression

outlined in the narcissistic reactance theory (Baumeister, Catanese, & Wallace, 2002) and the confluence model (Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991; Malamuth & Thornhill, 1994). The maladaptive facet of the NPI, comprised of the Exploitativeness and Entitlement subscales, appears to capture a maladaptive expression of otherwise nonpathological narcissism, thus highlighting the importance of examining the scale in terms of its components. That is, studies that have utilized the NPI total score have only captured general nonpathological narcissism and have missed the opportunity to understand the maladaptive facets that exists within the construct. Furthermore, these findings call into question the overall utility of the NPI total score in general and suggest that the scale should be further examined (Ackerman et al., 2011).

Contrary to hypotheses, PNI facets were not differentially associated with sexual aggression categories at the same magnitude as the total PNI score or NPI maladaptive facet scores. However, PNI vulnerability was associated with tactics of sexual aggression (i.e., verbal tactics) as well as rape proclivity, whereas PNI grandiosity was not. This suggests that although PNI facets may not distinguish rates of perpetration categories, they may prove useful in understanding the methods by which individuals engage in sexual aggression. Vulnerable narcissism has been shown to be associated with increased negative emotionality and decreased self-esteem, particularly in response to ego-threats (Hart, Tortoriello, Richardson, & Adams, 2108; Miler et al., 2011). Individuals who endorse greater vulnerable narcissism may be more likely to utilize verbal coercion which includes spreading lies about the individual, showing displeasure, and criticizing one's attractiveness in sexual encounters. Although not directly assessed as a part of this study, it is possible vulnerable narcissistic individuals utilize these verbal tactics in response to

perceived or anticipated rejection (i.e., ego threat) as a means to combat resulting shame and anger.

Sexual narcissism and its facets Sexual Entitlement and Exploitation demonstrated the strongest correlation with sexual perpetration categories when compared with trait-based narcissistic measures. Interestingly, the SNS two facets demonstrating the strongest relationships (i.e., Entitlement and Exploitation) are conceptually similar to the two subscales comprising maladaptive narcissism (i.e., Entitlement and Exploitativeness) as assessed by the NPI. Indeed, for both the NPI and SNS, Entitlement facets/scales capture feelings of being owed and deserving. The Exploitativeness facets/scales include items addressing a willingness to manipulate and use others to obtain desired objects. Taken together, this suggests that college men who endorse feeling they are owed things in life and are more willing to use others to achieve their goal are also more likely to engage in sexual aggression. Interestingly, this may shed some light on the findings relevant to the PNI total and facet scores. Specifically, PNI Vulnerability encompasses an Entitlement subscale and PNI Grandiosity encompasses an Exploitativeness subscale. As such, neither facet independently consists of both. Perhaps it is the combination of Exploitativeness and Entitlement that best explains sexual aggression, as opposed to narcissism in its pathological vs. nonpathological vs. grandiose vs. vulnerable forms. This may explain why the overall PNI score was significantly associated with sexual aggression categories while the facets were not.

Female Sample

Results from the hierarchical regressions suggested that the combination of sexual attitudes, narcissism, and impulsivity scales significantly predicted sexual aggression but not rape proclivity among women. More specifically, pathological narcissism, and multiple impulsivity scales including Lacks Premeditation, Positive Urgency, Sensation Seeking, and performance on Porteus Mazes offered the most useful information in understanding sexual aggression. This finding is in line with theoretical models and associated empirical findings highlighting both narcissism and low self-control/sexual compulsivity as predictive of sexual aggression in females (Bouffard, Bouffard, & Miller, 2016; Gannon et al., 2008; Schatzel-Murphy, et al., 2009; Schatzel-Murphy, 2011). More specifically, Mouilso, Calhoun, and Rosenbloom (2013) observed significant associations between UPPS-P scales of Positive Urgency, Negative Urgency, and Lacks Premeditation and perpetration status among male perpetrators, which is largely similar to the current findings. Interestingly, the current study found Sensation Seeking was a significant predictor of sexual aggression, a result not observed in the aforementioned study among men, which may suggest that some women may be focused on the inherent reward of sexual encounters while ignoring risks associated with perpetration.

Interestingly, when other variables are controlled for, the relationship between Positive Urgency and sexual aggression becomes negative, suggesting the tendency to engage in impulsive actions subsequent to positive affective states may indeed be inversely associated with sexual aggression. Additionally, Negative Urgency was not a significant predictor of sexual aggression. These findings suggest that women may not sexually aggress as a result of perceived inability to control oneself in response to intensive

affective states as previously thought. Instead, women who are high in pathological narcissism and experience a proclivity for exciting or dangerous activities, lack deliberation, and are behaviorally disinhibited, may be at increased risk to engage in sexual aggression.

Importantly, an examination of narcissism and impulsivity as multidimensional constructs in relation to sexual aggression categories and tactics revealed some interesting findings. The facet scores for narcissism and impulsivity appeared to be related to various types of sexual aggression, suggesting that utilizing the total scores of these constructs clouds the overall picture of this nuanced relationship. Differential associations observed were largely consistent with previous findings. More specifically, overall NPI scores were not associated with sexual aggression outcomes, providing further support that nonpathological narcissism as a whole may not be associated with problematic behavioral outcomes. Scores on the maladaptive facet of the NPI demonstrated moderate relationships with various sexual aggression outcome categories including attempted rape, rape, and overall perpetration frequency (Blinkhorn et al., 2015). In addition, maladaptive narcissism was associated with sexual aggression via Exploitation tactics (i.e., use of alcohol and/or taking advantage of someone who is intoxicated), which is also consistent with the findings of Blinkhorn et al., (2015). That is, both feelings of entitlement and a willingness to manipulate/exploit others are associated with sexual aggression among women, and may explain a woman's willingness to take advantage of someone who lacks the ability to consent due to intoxication (i.e., exploitation tactics). Further, pathological narcissism and vulnerable

narcissism demonstrated relationships with non-contact perpetration and overall perpetration frequency.

Overall, and in the context of prior explanations of female sexual aggression, these findings may represent a maladaptive attempt to assert power and control. That is, women who experience a sense of entitlement, willingness to exploit others, and poor self-esteem, may overcompensate in an attempt to mask their own poor self-concept. One manifestation of this overcompensation is engaging in sexually aggressive behaviors against men. Importantly, the lack of significant association between sexual narcissism and sexual aggression outcomes in the female sample suggests that for women, it is indeed a more general pathological or maladaptive narcissism, rather than narcissism specific to sexual encounters, that may precipitate sexual aggression. In other words, narcissism in women may not manifest specific to sexual encounters. Instead, sexual aggression may represent an unconscious or indirect outcome for women high in pathological and/or maladaptive narcissism. An alternative explanation for the lack of a significant finding may be that the SNS does not capture the construct within females. As noted previously, the application of measures designed for men to a female population are inherently lacking an appreciation or consideration for the differences between men and women. As such, women may indeed possess narcissistic traits relevant to sexual experiences; however, the SNS does not capture these traits in women, as it does in men. Finally, it is quite possible that this finding can be explained by the sample size and small number of women who endorsed sexually aggressive experiences.

The lack of association between narcissism and rape proclivity may be attributable to the larger problems associated with female sexual aggression research. The

rape proclivity measure was originally created for males and adapted by the current researcher for a female population. Ironically, this is an exact problem previously mentioned in that this assumes that women sexually aggress and view sexually aggressive experiences in the same manner as men. As such, it is possible that this measure may accurately capture male proclivity but perform sub-optimally when attempting to assess female proclivity. In other words, the scenarios depicting the sexually aggressive experiences may not capture encounters typical for women and as a result, they would not identify as the perpetrator depicted.

Conclusions and Implications

To date, much of the research on sexual aggression highlights attitudinal (e.g., rape myth acceptance) and social (e.g., fraternity membership, alcohol consumption) factors. This study provides further support to a far more limited pool of research for the role of maladaptive personality traits in shaping sexual aggression (Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016). Ultimately, the results emphasize the utility of a nuanced approach to personality assessment and impulsive behavior in understanding sexual aggression among college students. For both genders, a sense of entitlement and willingness to manipulate others appears to be of more use in explaining types of sexual aggression than the overall narcissistic traits. For women, some facets of impulsivity and not others are also notably important in addition to narcissistic traits. Interestingly, the magnitude of the relationship between maladaptive NPI scores and sexual aggression outcomes were similar for men and women. Thus, although men may endorse greater rates of narcissism (Grijalva et al., 2015), women who endorse narcissistic traits are possibly just as likely to engage in problematic sexual behaviors as men. Given these findings, women should not be

excluded from the conversation surrounding the role of narcissism and impulsivity in sexual aggression, though they should be examined separately due to differential patterns of responses to the constructs.

Consistent with prior literature, this study also demonstrated an association between vulnerable narcissism and indirect methods of perpetration (e.g., verbal threats or exploitation via alcohol), rather than use of force. (Lapsley & Aalsma, 2006; Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016; Wink, 1991). This may represent an underlying low self-esteem and anxiety on the part of the perpetrator. Given the high frequency of alcohol consumption and sexual harassment that occurs on college campuses, this is a particularly interesting and relevant finding (Abbey, 2002; Association for American Universities, 2019).

Importantly, the current study offers important implications for future research on narcissism and impulsivity in general and in relation to sexual aggression. There is no agreed upon conceptualization of narcissism as a construct. Accordingly, confusion regarding its component characteristics abounds, as well as which measures may best capture said characteristics in varying contexts. The current study sought to rectify this problem by utilizing a number of measures consistent with multiple conceptualizations of the construct. By utilizing the NPI to gauge nonpathological narcissism and examining its facets that represent adaptive and maladaptive expressions of the construct in conjunction with the PNI to gauge vulnerable and grandiose pathological narcissism, important differences were observed. More specifically, it became clear that there is limited utility of total scores of these measures in understanding sexual aggression. Although the measures themselves are useful, the facets are far more important than the total scores, which appear to obscure the depiction of narcissism. The NPI total score,

which has been demonstrated to be negatively related to internalizing problems (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010), appears to conflate adaptive and maladaptive personality dimensions into a composite, and therefore, misleading score (Ackerman et al., 2011). Indeed, Ackerman et al., (2011) observed a three-factor structure of the NPI including: a Leadership/Authority domain encompassing adaptive functions and outcomes, including social potency, global self-esteem, and goal persistence; a Grandiose Exhibitionism domain they intimated reflects “self-love and theatrical self-presentation” including vanity and exhibitionistic tendencies; and Entitlement/Exploitativeness domain, reflecting “socially toxic” aspects of the NPI and demonstrating correlations with contingent self-esteem, devaluing others, and antisocial tendencies. Although the Leadership/Authority and Grandiose Exhibitionism domains were not specifically examined in this study, the results relevant to the Entitlement/Exploitativeness domain (i.e., maladaptive narcissism) provide further support for this conceptualization of the construct and its organization within the NPI.

Relatedly, the current study provides some insight into the PNI as a gauge of pathological narcissism more broadly. Critiques of the PNI have argued that the vulnerability and grandiosity facets within the measures covary excessively, resulting in a lack of discriminant validity (Miller et al., 2014, 2016). The utility of the grandiosity subscale in particular has been called into question as it has been suggested the facet overemphasizes fragility given its development in clinical populations, thereby underemphasizing genuine antagonism. As Edershile, Simms, and Wright (2019) demonstrated, although PNI grandiosity and vulnerability demonstrate shared variance, they also contain unique elements and associations consistent with current

conceptualizations of the construct. Although researchers tend to agree that narcissism encompasses grandiose and vulnerable elements, there still exist different opinions within the field regarding whether grandiosity and vulnerability should be entirely distinct from one another. A complete examination of these subscales and differential patterns with other personality variables was beyond the scope of this study. However, given the distinct differences in the relationships observed between PNI vulnerability and grandiosity and sexual aggression, the study offers support that the subscales offer different information relevant to the overall construct of pathological narcissism.

In creating the latent construct of Impulsivity, some noteworthy conclusions are worth mentioning. Specifically, within the male sample, only one scale of the UPPS-P (Negative Urgency) mapped onto the construct. This calls into question the independent scales of the UPPS-P in assessing impulsivity and disinhibition. Alternatively, the UPPS-P may be an appropriate measure of impulsivity and these findings may demonstrate the heterogeneous nature of the construct, with the current latent construct representing only one manifestation of impulsivity. Additionally, all three experimental tasks (IGT, Mazes, and Trails) mapped onto the construct as well, along with PID-5-SF trait facet of Impulsivity. Thus, the UPPS-P Negative Urgency scale may simply be the only scale within the measure that assesses impulsivity as expressed in the same manner as these experimental tasks and the PID-5-SF. Further, the necessity of including multiple measures of impulsivity (rather than using a single or total score) is highlighted by the differential relationships between individual UPPS-P scores, other measures of impulsivity, and sexual aggression outcomes between men and women. For instance, the UPPS-P did not demonstrate significant relationships with sexual aggression at the

established threshold for men; whereas, UPPS-P Positive Urgency, Sensation Seeking, and Lacks Premeditation demonstrated significant relationships with outcomes among women. Negative Urgency and Positive Urgency demonstrated significant relationships with other measures of impulsivity including the PID-5-SF and Trait Making Test for men. For women, UPPS-P Lacks Premeditation, Negative Urgency, Positive Urgency, and Sensation Seeking all significantly overlapped with PID-5-SF Impulsivity, but not the experimental tasks. However, performance on Mazes was important in predicting sexual aggression. Overall, this highlights a distinct need to consider all avenues of trait-based and behavioral indicators of impulsivity. Relatedly, this study is among the first to utilize experimental tasks to gauge behavioral disinhibition in addition to self-reported impulsivity. The results offer substantial evidence for their utility in gauging the construct while also highlighting doubt regarding their independent utility in predicting sexual aggression.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current study sample consisted of 77 men and 118 women that were analyzed separately due to gender differences. It is possible that the lack of significant findings in relation to impulsivity in the male sample was in part due to the analyses being grossly underpowered. This highlights the need of a larger sample size in future research. Further, although this study attempted to assess narcissism and impulsivity as multifaceted constructs, there may be the possibility that aspects of these constructs went overlooked. For instance, components of narcissism as it is expressed among females may have been missed, given the fact that the selection of measures was largely based upon prior research with males. As noted throughout the discussion, this study clearly

delineates the importance of a nuanced approach to personality assessment. Future research should cease to utilize total scores on measures such as the NPI or PNI when attempting to the construct's predictive value. To conflate pathological and nonpathological narcissism, as well as their hypothesized facets, would be largely misrepresenting any observed relationship. In order to reduce this possibility, the development of a scale assessing all proposed domains and facets (i.e., pathological, nonpathological, grandiose, vulnerable, adaptive, and maladaptive components) would be largely beneficial. This would further provide the opportunity to examine the factor structure and organization of all hypothesized domains and facets.

In the same vein, limitations surrounding the modification and application of theories and measures created for males applied to a female sample has already been addressed. Future researchers should be cautious to select measures that are more representative of actual sexually aggressive experiences perpetrated by females. Qualitative information relevant to female perpetrators may prove useful in understanding the specific types of scenarios that are more representative of true sexually aggressive scenarios among women. Although the use of experimental tasks to gauge impulsivity was an identified strength of the current study, the nuances of the Iowa Gambling Task scores were not examined. That is, the IGT has been shown to reflect two different styles of decision-making; affective and deliberative decision-making (Wood & Bechara, 2014). The current study mapped overall performance on the IGT onto the Impulsivity construct; future research should aim to examine these separate processes in addition to overall performance, as it may provide a more detailed depiction of impulsivity.

Given the low base rate of sexual offending via physical force (i.e., Sexual Assault tactics) in the current sample, conclusions regarding associations with narcissism and impulsivity could not be drawn as with the Verbal or Exploitation tactics. Future research should aim to examine how the use of force compares with the other, more indirect tactics to discern personality traits that may distinguish those who use physical force compared with those who do not. This may be particularly important because scenarios encompassing sexual aggression by force are likely more commonly reported to authorities due to their alignment with the stereotypical rape script. Thus, these may be more accessible as targets for intervention.

The current study included only heterosexual sexually aggressive experiences for a limited number of specific reasons. First, some measures were worded in a way depicting heterosexual encounters, thus not applying to homosexual encounters. A second reason for this limitation was due to the need to ensure a large enough sample within each category. If measures were adapted and same-sex encounters were included, a larger sample size would have been required. Importantly, members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer (LGBTQ+) community are just as likely, or more likely, to experience sexual assault (Walters, Chen, & Breiding, 2013). Unfortunately, same-sex assaults are far less investigated than heterosexual assaults (Turchik, Hebenstreit, & Judson, 2016). This likely stems from the current theories, stereotypes, and measures utilized to gauge sexual assault. Further, same-sex assaults may not occur among only those who identify as members of the LGBTQ+ community; instead, individuals who identify as heterosexual may still engage in sexual aggression toward members of the same sex. Future research should seek to examine these constructs among same-sex

encounters and caution should be taken to not arbitrarily disqualify individuals based on their identified sexual orientation. That is, same-sex sexual assaults should be investigated regardless of an individual's sexual orientation.

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 Sam Houston State University

EDUCATION

Candidate	Doctor of Philosophy <i>Clinical Psychology with a Forensic Emphasis</i> Sam Houston State University Huntsville, Texas <i>Dissertation:</i> Personality, Decision-Making, and Sexually Aggressive Behavior among College Students (defended December 2019) <i>Chair:</i> Jaime L. Anderson, Ph.D.
2019 – 2020	Predoctoral Psychology Internship, Oregon State Hospital
2017	Master of Arts <i>Clinical Psychology with a Forensic Emphasis</i> Sam Houston State University <i>Thesis:</i> #Healthy Living: Social Media Comparisons Regarding Physical Activity and Alcohol Use among College Students <i>Chair:</i> Craig Henderson, Ph.D.
2012	Master of Arts <i>Psychology</i> Marist College Poughkeepsie, New York
2011	Bachelor of Arts <i>Psychology, Magna Cum Laude</i> Marist College Poughkeepsie, New York

CLINICAL & PRACTICA EXPERIENCE

August 2019 – Present	Pre-Doctoral Intern <i>Oregon State Hospital</i> Salem, Oregon
<i>Population/Setting:</i>	Diverse adult population with serious mental illnesses in an inpatient hospital, under forensic and civil commitments
<i>Duties:</i>	<u>First Rotation Major: Competency Restoration</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Individual and group psychoeducation/therapy ▪ Competency to stand trial early referrals ▪ Psychodiagnostic assessment

First Rotation Minor: Psychotherapy

- Individual therapy for patients under Guilty Except for Insanity and Civil Commitments

Expected Rotation: Forensic Evaluation Service

- Competency to Stand Trial and Criminal Responsibility evaluations
- Observe expert testimony with the possibility of providing testimony

Other Duties:

- Providing Supervision: Provide group supervision to doctoral-level practicum students under supervision of a licensed psychologist
- Original Research Project: The utility of dimensional personality traits in understanding aggression in a psychiatric setting
- Didactics: Attend a generalist and forensic-specific didactics and seminars

Supervisors: Nicole Ball, Ph.D., J.D., Kris Thomas, Ph.D., Erica Leeper, Psy.D., Kimberly Rideout, Psy.D., Sarah Robertson, Psy.D

June 2018 –
July 2019

Pre-Doctoral Practicum Student Clinician
Rusk State Hospital
Rusk, Texas

Population/Setting: Diverse adult population with serious mental illnesses in an inpatient hospital, under forensic and civil commitments

- Duties:*
- Individual therapy and group-based competency restoration services
 - Psychodiagnostic testing
 - Competency to stand trial and violence risk assessments
 - Observed expert testimony and risk review panels

Supervisor: Sarah Rogers, Ph.D.

October 2015 –
July 2019

Assistant Forensic Evaluator
Psychological Services Center
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas

Population/Setting: Ethnically diverse, male and female adults involved in the justice system, incarcerated and residing in the community

- Duties:*
- Competency to stand trial and mental status at the time of the offense evaluations

Supervisors: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP & Wendy Elliott, Ph.D., ABPP

September 2015 –
July 2019

Pre-doctoral Practicum Student Clinician
Psychological Services Center
Sam Houston State University

Huntsville, Texas

Population/Setting: A diverse, low-income, multi-ethnic population of children, adolescents, and adults seeking outpatient services; justice-involved adolescents detained and residing in the community

Duties:

- Individual therapy
- Comprehensive psychodiagnostic and psychoeducational evaluations
- Court- and probation-ordered psychodiagnostic evaluations of justice-involved adolescents

Supervisors: Darryl Johnson, Ph.D., Craig Henderson, Ph.D., Jorge G. Varela Ph.D., & Wendy Elliott, Ph.D., ABPP

June 2017 –
May 2018

Pre-doctoral Practicum Student Clinician
Office of Dr. Rebecca Hamlin, Clinical and Forensic Psychologist
Spring, Texas

Population/Setting: Children, adolescent, and adults in a private practice with a variety of developmental, internalizing, externalizing, and serious mental illness; justice-involved adults incarcerated and residing in the community

Duties:

- Individual, Couples, and Family therapy
- Psychodiagnostic test administration
- Ex-parte competency to stand trial and criminal responsibility evaluations
- Community outreach during disaster and crises events

Supervisor: Rebecca Hamlin, Ph.D.

May 2016 –
May 2017

Pre-Doctoral Practicum Student Clinician
Montgomery County Juvenile Probation Department
Conroe, Texas

Population/Setting: Justice-involved children and adolescents, detained or residing in the community

Duties:

- Court-ordered and probation-referred psychodiagnostic and psychoeducational evaluations

Supervisors: Darryl Johnson, Ph.D.

August 2012 –
October 2012

Residential Counselor
Carrier Clinic/East Mountain Youth Lodge
Belle Mead, New Jersey

Population/Setting: Adolescent male and female patients with acute and serious mental illness residing in a 24-hour intensive, residential setting

Duties:

- Direct patient care

- Co-facilitated psychoeducational and coping skills groups

Supervisor: Cheryl Colangelo, RN

January 2012 – **Graduate Residential Counseling Extern**
May 2012 ***Hudson River Housing/River Haven Youth Shelter***
Poughkeepsie, New York

Population/Setting: Adolescent males and females designated as runaway or homeless residing in an emergency shelter

- Duties:*
- Direct care
 - Psycho-educational groups and crisis intervention

Supervisors: James Regan, Ph.D. & Peter Menconeri, M.A.

January 2011 – **Undergraduate Counseling Intern**
May 2011 ***Mid-Orange Correctional Facility***
Warwick, New York

Population/Setting: Adult males incarcerated in a medium-security state prison

- Duties:*
- Psychoeducational groups and intake services

Supervisors: James Regan, Ph.D.

SUPERVISORY EXPERIENCE

August 2018 – **Peer Supervisor**
May 2019 ***Doctoral Practicum I***
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas

- Duties:*
- Co-supervise junior doctoral student providing psychotherapy and conducting psychological assessments in community clinic

Supervisor: Wendy Elliot, Ph.D., ABPP

January 2017 – **Peer Supervisor**
May 2017, ***Theory and Research in Psychotherapy***
January 2018- May 2018 Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas

- Duties:*
- Supervised first-year clinical psychology doctoral students' simulated therapy sessions

Supervisor: Craig Henderson, Ph.D.

October 2016 – **Assessment Peer Supervisor**
 May 2017 ***Doctoral Practicum I***
 Sam Houston State University
 Huntsville, Texas

Duties: ▪ Co-supervised junior doctoral student conducting comprehensive psychoeducational and psychodiagnostic evaluations

Supervisors: Darryl Johnson, Ph.D., & Wendy Elliot, Ph.D., ABPP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

August 2018 – **Teaching Assistant**
 May 2019 ***Doctoral Practicum I***
 Department of Psychology and Philosophy
 Sam Houston State University

Duties: ▪ Provide supervision to junior doctoral-level student clinicians

Supervisor: Craig Henderson, Ph.D.

August 2017 – **Teaching Assistant**
 August 2018 ***Assessment of Intelligence and Academic Achievement, Doctoral- and Master-level Graduate Courses***
 Department of Psychology and Philosophy
 Sam Houston State University

Duties: ▪ Conducted administration and scoring checks for various intelligence and achievement tests with students in clinical and school psychology graduate programs

Supervisor: Ramona Noland, Ph.D., NCSP, LSSP

November 2017 **Guest Lecturer**
Psychopathology, First-year Doctoral and Master-level Graduate Course
 Department of Psychology and Philosophy
 Sam Houston State University

Duties: ▪ Presented comprehensive case conceptualization of a psychotherapy client presenting with anxious and depressive symptoms

Supervisor: David Nelson, Ph.D., ABPP

August 2014 – **Graduate Instructor**
 May 2015 ***Introduction to Psychology, Undergraduate-level course***
 Department of Psychology and Philosophy

Sam Houston State University

Duties: ▪ Full responsibility for creating and delivering lectures and exams, scoring assignments, and assigning final grades for classes of 70 to 150 students

Supervisor: Christopher Wilson, Ph.D.

RESEARCH FUNDING

Source: Association for the Treatment of Sexual Abusers, Predoctoral Research Grant (\$2,336)

Title: Personality, Decision-Making, and Sexually Coercive Behaviors among College Students

Role: Principal Investigator

Date: August, 2017

PUBLICATIONS

Kavish, N., **Schiafo, M.**, Sellbom, M., & Anderson, J. (In Press). *Construct Validity of the Comprehensive Assessment of Psychopathic Personality (CAPP) Lexical Rating Scale*. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*.

Schiafo, M., Haugh, S., & Anderson, J. (2020). *Personality, decision-making, and sexual aggression in college students*. Manuscript in preparation.

Waymire, K. A., Varela, J. G., & **Schiafo, M. C.** (2020) *Perceptions of the police: An exploration of race and ethnic identity*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Schiafo, M., Henderson, C., Yenne, E., Goodson, A., & Falgout, R. (2020). *Behavioral economic analysis of the effect of planned next day exercise on alcohol use*. Manuscript in preparation.

Kavish, N., **Schiafo, M.**, Sellbom, M., & Anderson, J. (2020). *On the validity of psychometric tests of human Life History Speed*. Manuscript in preparation.

Waymire, K. A., Varela, J. G., & **Schiafo, M. C.** (2020). *A novel approach to measuring perceptions of the police: Procedural justice in analogue scenarios*. Manuscript in preparation.

Waymire, K. A., Varela, J. G., & **Schiafo, M. C.** (2020) *Social identity and views on police legitimacy*. Manuscript in preparation.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

- Schiafo, M., & Anderson, J. L.** (2020, March). *A multifaceted assessment of narcissism and sexual aggression among males and female college students*. Poster accepted to the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, LA.
- Reinhard, E., **Schiafo, M.**, & Anderson, J. L. (2020, March). *Understanding Linguistic Correlates of Sexual Aggression in College-Aged Males*. Paper accepted to the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, LA.
- Waymire, K.A., **Schiafo, M.C.**, & Varela, J.G. (2020, March). *Dangerous beliefs: steps toward a better understanding of the Incel ideology*. Poster session accepted for presentation at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, LA.
- Boland, J., **Schiafo, M.**, & Anderson, J. L. (2019, November). *Epic Trolls: The Relationship of Narcissism to Online Disinhibition*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the Texas Psychological Association, San Antonio, TX.
- Schiafo, M.C.**, Waymire, K.A., & Anderson, J.L. (2019, March). *The Utility of the Belief in Female Sexual Deceptiveness Scale in Understanding Sexual Aggression*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, OR.
- Haugh, S., Frazier, B., **Schiafo, M.**, & Anderson, J. L. (March, 2019). *Pathological personality correlates of maladaptive sexual behavior*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, OR.
- Camins, J.S., Holdren, S., & Varela, J.G., Waymire, K., A., & **Schiafo, M.C.** (2019, March). *Criminal culpability: Does military status matter?* Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, OR.
- Noland, R., **Schiafo, M.**, & Francis, J. (2018, August). *Training impact of learning WAIS-IV administration by Q-Interactive versus traditional methods*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Schiafo, M.**, Kavish, N., Anderson, J., & Sellbom, M. (2018, March). *Concurrent validity of the Comprehensive Assessment of Psychopathic Personality (CAPP) self-rating form*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, Memphis, TN.
- Schiafo, M.**, Henderson, C., Yenne, E., Goodson, A. & Falgout, R.A. (2017, November). *Behavioral economic analysis of the effect of planned next day exercise on alcohol use*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the Texas Psychological Association, Houston, TX.

Schiafo, M., Henderson, C., Falgout, R., Goodson, A., Smith, T., Barrow, C., Waymire, K., & Missimo, C. (2017, August). *#HealthyLiving: Social media comparisons among college students*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Waymire, K. A., Varela, J. G., & **Schiafo, M. C.** (2017, August). *Procedural justice, police legitimacy, and the influence of race and identity*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Schiafo, M., Ball, E., Waymire, K., Ryan, L. & Henderson, C. (2017, March). *Explaining the relation between aggression and delinquency: Individual and peer factors*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, Seattle, WA.

Waymire, K., Varela, J., **Schiafo, M.**, Holdren S., Miller, R., Lawrence, J., Ibarra, D. & Camins, J. (2017, March). *Do race and ethnic identity influence perceptions of law enforcement officers after traffic stops?* Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychology-Law Society, Seattle, WA.

Henderson, C., Yenne, E., Sledd, M., **Schiafo, M.**, Mena, C., Missimo, C., Goodson, A., Langemeier, D., Figueroa, M. (2016, November). *Don't drink and exercise: New research on exercise and alcohol use among college students*. Symposium conducted at the annual meeting of the Texas Psychological Association, Austin, TX.

Henderson, C., Manning, J., Mena, C., Conroy, D., Yenne, E., & **Schiafo, M.** (2015, November). *Relationships between daily physical activity and alcohol use among college students*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Behavioral and Cognitive Therapies, Chicago, IL.

Formon, D. L., Schmidt, A. T., Maloney, K., **Schiafo, M.**, & Schrantz, K. (2015, August). *Job hunting efforts in offender and non-offender completers of a community-based employment program*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Ontario.

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

October 2016 – **Graduate Research Assistant / Investigator / Co-Investigator**
 July 2019 **Assessment of Personality Psychopathology Laboratory**
 Sam Houston State University

Projects/Duties: ■ *Decision Making in College Students (Dissertation Project, Lead Investigator)*
 ■ *College, Personality, and Sexual Experiences (Lead Investigator)*

Supervisor: Jaime L. Anderson, Ph.D.

November 2016 – **Graduate Research Assistant / Co-Investigator**
 June 2019 ***Youth and Family Studies Laboratory***
 Sam Houston State University

Projects/Duties: ▪ *Psychosocial Assessment of Justice-Involved Youth (Co-investigator)*

Supervisor: Amanda Venta, Ph.D.

September 2017 – **Graduate Research Assistant**
 June 2019 ***Dr. Ramona Noland's Laboratory***
 Sam Houston State University

Projects/Duties: ▪ *Training Impact of Learning WAIS-IV Administration by Q-Interactive Versus Traditional Methods*

Supervisor: Ramona Noland, Ph.D., NCSP, LSSP

July 2016 – **Personal Service Contractor**
 December 2016 ***Department of Criminal Justice***
 Sam Houston State University

Projects/Duties: ▪ *LoneStar: Study of Offender Trajectories Associations and Re-entry*

Supervisor: Erin Orrick, Ph.D.

January 2015 – **Graduate Research Assistant**
 August 2017 ***Exercise and Mental Health Lab***
 Sam Houston State University

Projects/Duties: ▪ *Social Media Use among College Students (Thesis Project, Lead Investigator)*
 ▪ *A Behavioral Economic Analysis of the Effect of Planned Next Day Exercise on Drinking (Co-investigator)*
 ▪ *Mental Health and Physical Activity (Co-investigator)*
 ▪ *Exercise/Feedback Intervention: College Student Exercise and Alcohol Use (Co-investigator)*

Supervisor: Craig Henderson, Ph.D.

September 2015 – **Data Collector and Reviewer**
 September 2016 ***The National Center on Addiction and Substance Use***
 Columbia University
 New York, New York

Projects/Duties: ▪ *Provided coding services, reviewed and scored individual and family therapy sessions provided by the Center using the Therapist*

Behavior Rating Scale- Core Elements of Family Therapy (TBRSC-CEFT) scale and manual on NIDA funded study

Supervisors: Molly Bobek, LCSW & Craig Henderson, Ph.D.

January 2013 – **Research Assistant/Clinical Assistant**
July 2014 ***Child Psychiatric Epidemiology Group***
Columbia University/ New York State Psychiatric Institute
New York, New York

Projects/Duties: ■ Assisted on multiple NIH, CDC and NIOSH funded research projects with a primary focus on the transmission of trauma from parent to child

Supervisor: Christina Hoven, DrPH, MPH

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

SEMINARS & TRAININGS

November 2019	Cognitive Assessment Kristopher Thomas, Ph.D.
November 2019	Assessing Response Style/Malingering Mandy Davies, Psy.D.
October 2019	Cognitive Behavioral Therapy for Psychosis Jessica Murakami-Brundage, Ph.D.
October 2019	Intellectual & Developmental Disabilities Jennifer Snyder, Ph.D.
August 2019	Historical-Clinical-Risk-Mnagement-20, Version 3 (HCR-20 V3) Brian Hartman, Psy.D. & Stephen James, Ph.D.
August 2019	Short-Term Assessment of Risk and Treatability (START) Robert Lagattuta, Ph.D.
September 2018	Cross Cultural Variations in Adult Attachment DC Wang, Ph.D.
May 2018	Critical Thinking in Forensic Psychological Evaluations Terry Kukor, Ph.D., ABPP
May 2018	Controversies in Forensic Mental Health Assessment Terry Kukor, Ph.D., ABPP
April 2017	Indispensable Forensic Psychology in the Era of Neuroscience and Genetics Stephen J. Morse, J.D., Ph.D.

January 2017	LGBTQ Issues in Psychology and Clinical Work Drew Miller, Ph.D.
July 2016	Criminal Responsibility and Forensic Report Writing Mini-Workshop Brittany P. Bate, M.A. & Kelsey L. Laxton, M.A.
April 2016	Advancing Recidivism Reduction Efforts: RNR Simulation Tool Faye S. Taxman, Ph.D.
February 2016	Child Custody Evaluations John Zervopoulos, J.D., Ph.D.
September 2015	Motivational Interviewing Workshop Craig Henderson, Ph.D.
April 2015	Callous-Unemotional Traits and Conduct Disorder: Implications for Understanding, Diagnosing, and Treating Antisocial Youth Paul J. Frick, Ph.D.
November 2014	Innocence Project of Texas Nick Vilbas, J.D.
October 2011	Mentors in Violence Prevention Program, Center for Civic Engagement & Leadership

SPECIALIZED CLINICAL COURSEWORK

Spring 2017	Mental Health Law Instructor: Phillip Lyons, J.D., Ph.D.
Fall 2016	Empirically Supported Treatment Instructor: David Nelson, Ph.D., ABPP.
Summer 2016	Human Neuropsychology/Neuropsychological Assessment Instructor: David Nelson, Ph.D., ABPP.
Spring 2016	Forensic Assessment II (emphasis on civil forensic evaluations, including juvenile forensic issues) Instructor: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP.
Fall 2015	Supervision Seminar Series Instructors: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP & Jorge Varela, Ph.D.
Fall 2015	Forensic Assessment I (emphasis on criminal forensic evaluations) Instructor: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP.

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE AND LEADERSHIP

September 2017, May 2018	Community Outreach/ Crisis Service Coordination <i>The Office of Dr. Rebecca Hamlin</i> Spring, Texas
September 2016 -	Graduate Student Mentor

May 2017	<i>Sam Houston State University</i> Huntsville, Texas
September 2015	Student Clinician Volunteer/Community Outreach <i>Psychological Services Center, Sam Houston State University</i> Huntsville, Texas

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

2015 – Present	American Psychology-Law Society (APA Division 41)
2015 – 2018	American Psychological Association
2017	Association for Psychological Science
2015 - 2017	Texas Psychological Association

AWARDS AND SCHOLARSHIPS

2011	Alpha Chi: Academic Honor Society
2010	Psi Chi: Psychology Honor Society
2010	Emerging Leaders Certificate
2007-2011	Academic Scholarship, Marist College